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THE ROUND TABLE.

NEW YORK, SATURDAY, SEPTEMBER 12, 1868.

THE SULPHUR SPRINGS LETTERS.

WHILE uniformly disclaiming any party allegiance or responsibility, we have repeatedly urged in these columns the policy no less than the generosity of healing the wounds of the prostrate South, and, by a course of kindness, toleration, and even of concession, of restoring her to health and confidence, and so, consequently, of restoring the financial and industrial prosperity of the nation. We have urged this policy because we are Americans; citizens not, as some of our Southern friends would have it, of any particular state, but of the whole country; because, being satisfied that the objects for which the war was avowedly and actually waged, namely, Union and Emancipation, were irrevocably gained, it seemed to us foolish as well as arbitrary to impose conditions or insist upon objects after the accession of peace which were never contemplated during hostilities; and because we hold it to be "a fundamental principle of government that people who have revolted and been subdued must either be dealt with so as to induce them voluntarily to become friends, or else they must be held by absolute military power, or devastated so as to prevent them from ever again doing harm as enemies." We have never been among those who have thought so ill of the conquerors in the late struggle as to believe that their sober second thought would permit them to adopt either of the two last implacable polities. Hence we have believed, and still confidently hope, that on the whole the course adopted would be a magnanimous and, therefore, a wise one; and that considerations of mere partisanship would be so generally waived in the sequel as to defeat the selfish, the short-sighted, or the malignant advocates of a policy of oppression.

The correspondence which has just been published, dated at White Sulphur Springs, Virginia, between General Rosecrans on the one hand, and General Lee together with some thirty other prominent representative Southerners on the other, expresses in terms which must carry great weight with dispassionate and patriotic minds the views and feelings whose prevalence and whose ascendancy can alone afford rational hope of genuine pacification, of restored harmony, and consequently of national happiness and prosperity. General Rosecrans, our newly-appointed Minister to Mexico—the most important embassy of the continent and that accredited to the country immediately adjacent to our states lately in revolt—being about to set forth on his mission, has written a frank and soldier-like letter to General Lee asking what he and his fellow-Southerners want. *The New York Times* ridicules General Rosecrans and his letter. It was a piece of presumption, in the eyes of that journal, for the general to write such a letter at all, to say nothing of the faults of its diction. General Rosecrans is a soldier who fought bravely in the war; like General Grant, is an American born, was educated at West Point, and in our humble judgement is at least as good a writer and speaker as General Grant has shown himself to be. As to the right or the propriety of his holding this correspondence we really fail to see that it admits of a question. These letters may be political campaign documents, as the Republican newspapers so generally aver; but surely, if such campaign documents ever were justifiable, these are so. With a directness and truth that will command wide commendation General Rosecrans admits that "it is plain to us at the West and North that the continuance of semi-anarchy, such as has existed for the last three years in ten states of our Union, largely increases the danger of centralism, swells our national expenditures, diminishes our productions and our revenue, inspires doubts of our political and financial stability, depreciates the value of our national bonds and currency, and places the credit of the richest below that of the poorest nation in

Christendom." And recognizing the sources and inseparable connections of these evils—perceiving, in a word, that prosperity and content in one section can only permanently be established through their being made possible in the other—the general goes on to say: "I believe—every one I know who reflects believes—that if the people of the Southern States could be at peace, and their energy and good will heartily applied to repair the wastes of war; reorganize their business; set the freedmen peacefully, prosperously, and contentedly at work; invite capital, enterprise, and labor from elsewhere to come freely among them, they would soon rebuild their ruined fortunes, multiply many fold the value of their lands, establish public confidence in our political stability, bring our government bonds to premium, our currency to a gold standard, and assure for themselves and the whole nation a most happy and prosperous future. Seeing this, and how all just interests concur in the work, I ask—the officers and soldiers who fought for the Union ask—every thinking man of the great West and North asks—why it cannot be done?"

Why, indeed? Every one concedes these things to be supremely desirable. Few, if any, deny their practicability. Is the South, or are the whites of the South, a stumbling-block in the way? Let us see if we can find evidence of it in General Lee's letter—letter characteristically ingenuous and explicit. The late leader of the Southern army says: "Whatever opinions may have prevailed in the past in regard to African slavery, or the right of a state to secede from the Union, we believe we express the almost unanimous judgement of the Southern people when we declare that they consider that those questions were decided by the war, and that it is their intention in good faith to abide by that decision. At the close of the war the Southern people laid down their arms, and sought to resume their former relations with the United States government." This is clear enough, and, we make no doubt, absolutely sincere. The South fought for Independence and Slavery: the North for Union and Abolition. The South lost: the North won. The South acquiesces in the result: does the North acquiesce? Not according to the Radical leaders. By their construction something else is to be insisted upon. Perhaps Southern soldiers would not have laid down their arms had they known this something was to be enforced against them. Perhaps Northern soldiers would have laid down their arms rather than fight to enforce it. But the Radical leaders say it is an indispensable pledge for future tranquillity and prosperity; and, during the three years they have been saying this, and leading the people to expect it, how much tranquillity and prosperity has the country at large enjoyed? And what, at this moment, is the promise of those blessings on the supposition of continued Radical rule? Let us turn again to General Lee's letter, and read what he says upon this point:

"The idea that the Southern people are hostile to the negroes and would oppress them if it were in their power to do so, is entirely unfounded. They have grown up in our midst, and we have been accustomed from childhood to look upon them with kindness. The change in the relations of the two races has wrought no change in our feeling toward them. They still constitute the important part of our laboring population. Without their labor the lands of the South would be comparatively unproductive. Without the employment which Southern agriculture affords, they would be destitute of the means of subsistence and become paupers dependent on public bounty."

"Self-interest, even if there were no higher motives, would therefore prompt the whites of the South to extend to the negroes care and protection. The important fact that the two races are, under existing circumstances, necessary to each other, is gradually becoming apparent to both, and we believe that but for influences exerted to stir up the passions of the negroes, the relations of the two races would soon adjust themselves on a basis of mutual kindness and advantage."

"It is true that the people of the South, together with the people of the North and West, are, for obvious reasons, opposed to any system of laws which would place the political power of the country in the hands of the negro race. But this opposition springs from no feeling of enmity, but from a deep-seated conviction that at present the negroes have neither the intelligence nor other qualifications which are necessary to make them safe depositaries of political power. They would inevitably become the victims of demagogues, who for selfish purposes would mislead them to the serious injury of the public."

"The great want of the South is peace. The people earnestly desire tranquillity and the restoration of the Union. They deprecate disorder and excitement as the most serious obstacle to their prosperity."

"They ask a restoration of their rights under the Constitution. They desire relief from oppressive misrule. Above all, they would appeal to their countrymen for the re-establishment of the Southern States of that which has justly been regarded as the birthright of every American—the right of self-government. Establish these on a firm basis, and we can safely promise, on behalf of the Southern people, that they will faithfully obey the Constitution and laws of the United States, treat the negro with kindness and humanity, and fulfil every duty incumbent on peaceful citizens, loyal to the Constitution of their country."

We do not see that comment upon this can add to

its force. *The New York Times*, indeed, in a spirit so foreign to its usual self as to surprise us, says the "whole letter is Southern gammon." If it be so, we fear *The Times* will discover that Southern gammon of this kind will better pass muster with the whole country than continued Radical despotism. We have been trying for three years the restorative qualities of the latter panacea. It would be strange, indeed, if sooner or later the people did not weary of it, and assent to a trial of the former. It is to be remembered that some time back *The Times* argued in favor of congressional reconstruction, not on the score of its intrinsic merits, but because of the difficulties of retrogression. To our contemporary's view, we are in reconstruction

"Stepp'd in so far, that, should we wade no more,
Returning were as tedious as go o'er."

But while alive to the conveniences of such a view, we cannot avoid perceiving that it is constantly growing more distasteful to the people, and should do injustice to our own conscience did we not own a belief that it ought to be so. Nothing in our opinion could be more fatal to the permanent interests of liberty on the American continent than the enfranchisement of an enormous mass of ignorant blacks in the same community with whites, formerly their masters, and under circumstances that offer a direct pecuniary inducement to persons of the lowest class, of both colors, to devote themselves to public affairs, thus formally inaugurating the vocation of the demagogue.

Universal negro suffrage, at present, cannot stand; and, at present, ought not to stand. It is illogical, unnecessary, despotic, and degrading. The election of General Grant, so far from assuring its permanency, would, in our belief, set the seal to its downfall. We think, that is to say, that such an election would ultimately bring about an overthrow of the system by sudden and violent means; since it would change to bitterness and despair the mingled doubt and hope with which Americans who oppose negro suffrage now regard it—Americans who do not live at the South alone, although their sentiments on this point may be fairly represented by the letter of General Lee. And, in this regard, we think *The Times* profoundly mistaken when, however it may pronounce the letter "a tame and profitless affair," it adds that it "will neither help nor injure either party." The thirty gentlemen whose names are appended to the paper in question wield an influence almost limitless at the South, and, as concerns the topics it discusses, an influence by no means despicable at the North. They are, at all events, universally accepted as fair exponents of Southern intelligence and disposition, and, in view of the late wrong-headed and ridiculous demonstrations of some politicians of their own section, we can imagine nothing better calculated than this calm, dignified, yet cordial document to show the whole country the true sentiments of the most influential and eminent Southerners in a manner that partisan malice can neither suppress nor distort. The letter will assuredly help one political party, then, and injure the other, just in the degree that floating or undecided voters may be determined in their choice by an intelligible statement of the wishes and temper of the South, and the consequent sympathy and accord which such explicit knowledge may bring about. Moderate and patriotic in every line, this exposition constitutes a proper antidote to the blood-and-thunder fables about Southern men and their intentions with which the Radical press has been endeavoring to fire anew the Northern heart and to perpetuate the alienation and suffering which have already lasted too long.

The plea of the South for self-government cannot permanently be ignored, except by the absolute subversion of our entire national fabric. Every day that we live makes this clearer and more certain. The election of General Grant, promising four more years to come like the three years just gone by, will not make negro suffrage one whit more wise, one whit more acceptable to the South, or, in a permanent sense, one whit more practicable. But it may make our mistakes infinitely more difficult, if not impossible, to rectify; it may make us all very much poorer and more miserable; it may make reconciliation of the sections a dream of the past never to be fulfilled; and it may make the apotheosis of the black man the precursor of military despotism.

Whether we are to be subjected to the chance of such vicissitudes, it is for the coming presidential election to decide.

THE TRIALS OF JOURNALISTS.

AMERICAN journalists write too much. With exceptions few and far between, the busy pens that make what it is the curious fashion to call "editorials," meaning leading articles, are over-taxed and consequently rarely do themselves justice. No man, whatever the vigor of his intellect or the affluence of his imagination, can secrete more than a given amount of thought. If a writer tries or is driven to produce more than his proper quantity, there follows one of two consequences—he throws his mental apparatus into an unhealthy condition not always curable, and always dangerous; or he learns to take the superficial view of things, making the butter of his brains cover as much area as possible, and so becomes unfaithful alike to the dignity of his calling and to himself, and as unwholesome morally as in the first case he becomes physiologically. The mass of American journalists do one of these two things, and we cannot but regard it as very unfortunate for the progress of the profession as well as for the true interests of the reading public that this should be the case. It is well that the public should understand how the evil is brought about. Nothing can be more unjust than to blame the journalists themselves for the fault of a system. A man sells his pen to a paper for so many dollars, and he is expected to furnish so much copy. The quantity, in most cases, is double, in some cases treble, what it should be; but custom establishes the rule, and those of us who earn our bread by writing are forced to comply with it. Individual remonstrance or argument goes for little against the iron rule and square of precedent. If A. will not furnish twelve columns a week for a given sum, B. will, and A. is very well aware of the fact. Literary men, as a class, are apt to be needy, and except after long experience they are prone to be sanguine respecting the amount of work they can trust themselves to turn off. Generally, too, the task is comparatively easy at first. It is in the long run that the pace kills. Nothing is more common than to hear people say, "How dull such and such a paper is getting to be;" and they are probably right. Yet we may happen to know that on that paper are employed several of the ablest and best-trained journalists of the day. The secret is that they are tired. They have tugged at the oar too long and too hard. They have tried to do the work of three years in one, or of five in two. After awhile they break down and can do no work at all. The fagged brain, the poor misused eyes, the neglected digestion, all refuse duty together, and their unhappy owner retires—to poverty and neglect, perhaps—and some other eager aspirant pushes into his place, to be in turn exhausted and tossed aside.

Of course this is all wrong. It is a sin against nature and a grave loss to the public as well as a cruel injustice to the journalist himself. For stimulants will not supply the brain-power that is so inordinately used in the struggle; the writer breaks down just when his experience and dear-bought facility would become most profitable to the world, and in most diseases that spring from overwork of the brain there is seldom such a thing as absolute recuperation. But there is no good reason why journalists should not go through long and healthy lives as well as other men; and so indeed they would if the public would demand and insist upon having the sort of articles that can only be written deliberately by writers carefully educated for their calling. The writers of leaders for *The London Times* write but three articles, sometimes but one, each week; and this is enough for an individual to do who writes for cultivated and critical readers. If the readers of our American dailies would discourage their hurried, flimsy, and inaccurate slop—often written, be it remembered, by men who could do very much better—and if the public, knowing their own true interests, were willing to pay for as well as to read a different order of newspaper literature, our journalistic standards might be greatly raised and our journalists might become a much healthier and happier class than in fact they are. In saying this we would not for a moment be understood to imply disrespect for our contemporaries the working writers of the day; they are

as a class a most laborious, indeed too laborious, body of literary craftsmen, but they are habitually overworked, or overwork themselves, and so do themselves injustice which their natural and acquired qualifications for their vocation might, under happier conditions, render needless.

The legitimate influence of the press is sadly curtailed by this enforced hasty writing. Many a well-conceived article misses its mark because the writer has been deprived of time to give his thoughts symmetrical and appropriate expression. Self-respect and a just intellectual balance are impaired together by habits thus engendered, as must always necessarily be the case when an artist's work falls habitually below his own proper ideal. The cure for this lies partly with publishers or proprietors, but it lies in a much greater degree with the public. Were the supporters of journals better disposed to buy, to extol, and steadily to uphold honest and deliberate writing—were they regularly to discriminate in favor of solid excellence in newspaper literature as, in this country, the intelligent classes are fast getting to do in clothes, in food and drink, and even, we are glad to say, in books, our journals would necessarily improve and progressively approach the level which it is so much to the interest of society they should attain. There is a market of Chatham Street and a market of Broadway in literary wares as well as in coats and trousers; it only needs that in things intellectual, no less than in things material, the Broadway market should be properly supplied with customers.

"The journal's law, the journal's patrons give,
For they who write to please must write to live."

Men enter the vocation daily with plenty of industry, with plenty of ability, with plenty of lofty aspiration, to be ground down in due time in the conventional mill which reduces all individuality and originality, all virility and elegance of thought and expression, to the superficial and commonplace plane that a vicious system, arising from a want of taste and conscientiousness in the average public mind, unfortunately engenders. It is easy to sneer at and condemn the poor apologies for newspapers that are thus so naturally and so numerously produced by the demands of a vitiated and neglected taste; a higher end would be subserved, and one to which each individual of the community might contribute, by sustaining whatever aims at loftier standards, and so ameliorating the trials of journalists by encouraging all that is best and noblest in their character and calling.

MR. READE AND THE SHAM SAMPLE SWINDLE.

MR. CHARLES READE would seem to have a good deal of a property akin to that by virtue of which Falstaff was not only witty in himself, but the cause that wit is in other men. Circumfused about Mr. Reade is a halo of crimination and litigation. In the present instance the dissensions began between himself and his co-laborer in the production of *Foul Play*, Mr. Dion Boucicault, and among their consequences were the appearance of rival dramatic versions of their story in the London and provincial theatres, and a scandal sufficient to justify the delightfully tumultuous authorship of *Punch's* serial, *Chikin Hazard*. In New York also the play proved to be the direful spring of woes unnumbered. Beginning with its failure to gain support, there followed in close succession quarrels of the managers, the abstraction of the theatre receipts, the strike and secession of the theatrical company, litigations and injunctions, attempts by the sheriff's myrmidons to break up performances before their audiences had received half the entertainment they had paid for, and, finally, a forcible entrance by a band of armed ruffians which involved bloodshed and possible murder and might easily have culminated in a panic and stampede by a crowded house, or the lynching of the occasioners of the turmoil.

Meanwhile, Mr. Reade has been sustaining his reputation at home. In the case of *Foul Play*, an experience has been repeated which has come to be the ordinary thing with its author's works,—that a conviction—a most base and villainous conviction, Mr. Reade would assure us, in his gentlemanly manner—forces itself upon the minds of its readers that they have read the same thing before. This time the promulgator of the discovery—as to whom Mr. Reade, of course, announces that he is "going to make an ex-

ample of him"—is a writer in *The Mask*, who announces that *Foul Play* had been plagiarized from *Le Portefeuille Rouge*, a French drama by M. Fournier and Meyer, which was produced in Paris in 1862. With his customary reliance on the efficacy of epithets—quite like Mr. Greeley—Mr. Reade proceeds to demolish the process whereby the similarity had been established, by arguing "the fraud in question" to have been a form of "the Sham Sample Swindle." Only by this alliterative wickedness, as he proceeds to show by means of samples produced by himself, and therefore, of course, ingenuous, could the impression of plagiarism have been produced "by dirtier hands than those which scatter dung upon our fields." We have not read *Le Portefeuille Rouge*, and our opinions in the matter are only formed at second-hand and from presumptions. Nor have we seen the article in *The Mask*. Mr. Reade, however, in his denunciation of the Sham Sample Swindle, makes it perfectly clear to those who follow his samples, that there is no noteworthy resemblance between the French drama and his play. How genuine samples are which lead to such a conclusion, any readers of *Foul Play* may determine after examining this abstract of the plot of the French drama, as stated by a correspondent of *The Pall Mall Gazette*:

"A certain M. Maurice (who afterward turns out to be the Marquis de Rochebrune) has been sentenced to the galleys for murder, and robbery. He escapes from Brest in a small fishing vessel, and is picked up many miles from land in a dying condition by a frigate commanded by the Comte de Kerveguen. On board this frigate is the count's daughter Helene, who recognizes in Maurice a gentleman who haunted her footsteps in the Tuilleries, at mass and elsewhere, and for whom, notwithstanding they have never interchanged a word, she has conceived a sentimental passion. The ship's doctor, who has served at Brest, identifies Maurice as an escaped convict, and the first impulse of the Comte de Kerveguen is to hang him at the yard-arm, but yielding to his daughter's entreaties he spares his life, resolving to hand him over to the proper authorities at the first French port at which he might arrive. The vessel, however, is wrecked, and Maurice, Helene, and a comic sailor contrive to reach an uninhabited part of the coast of Africa, where they remain for six months with no other society than that of an orang-outang. Maurice convinces Helene that he is innocent of the crimes imputed to him, and their love, conceived even before their actual acquaintance commenced, having ripened under the burning sun of Africa, they mutually resolve to consecrate to each other the remainder of their existence in the following terms:

"Helene.—'I am an orphan, Maurice! for if my father had been alive he would have sought me before this. Free, therefore, from all ties, in the presence of this sublime nature and of its Creator, I swear, Maurice, to be your wife!'

"Maurice.—'And I receive your vows upon my knees, swearing to consecrate my life to you. Now, come what will, etc., etc.'

"Shortly after this somewhat irregular marriage ceremony the Comte de Kerveguen, who has also been saved from a watery grave, arrives on the coast in search of his daughter, and, notwithstanding Helene's remonstrances, persists in carrying her off, leaving Maurice, whose marital claims he declines to recognize, behind on the desert scene of his wedded life.

"For a time Maurice is unheard of; but just as a certain M. de Folbert, who has kindly consented to overlook the African incidents and their result—a fine little boy—is about to lead Helene to the altar (a circumstance which shows that at all events the validity of her first marriage was questionable), Maurice again turns up, announces his proper rank and name, convicts the would-be bridegroom of the crime for which he (Maurice) has been unjustly condemned, obtains a free pardon, and, let us hope, for it is not stated in the drama, takes the proper steps to legalize his union with Helene."

Mr. Reade's plan of meeting charges of plagiarism is at all events comprehensive. It must, we think, have been taken—this is not meant as an accusation—from the lady charged with injuring a borrowed kettle, whose line of defence was: "1, The kettle was broken when you gave it to me; 2, It was whole when I gave it back; 3, I never had your d—d old kettle." When it devolved upon us to establish, two years ago, as we did by copious extracts in parallel columns (*The Round Table*, No. 65, Dec. 1, 1866), that the essential plot of *Griffith Gaunt*, many of its incidents, and even parts of its wording, had appeared years before, first in an anonymous rendering of the Pividrière case, next in a story by Mr. Wilkie Collins—both of which had been printed in English magazines, and the latter in a book,—Mr. Reade's reply was, that he "never saw either of those tales, nor read one line of them," but he accounted for the "partial resemblance" by acknowledging that he had drawn upon the *cause célèbre* upon which his predecessors had founded their stories, and he justified his procedure by a definition of plagiarism, framed for the purpose by himself, and including an unexpected admission respecting "impenitent thieves." In his descent upon the writer in *The Mask* who compares *Le Portefeuille Rouge* and *Foul Play*, "and contemptuously comments upon the more brilliant and important of the two"—by which Mr. Reade modestly signifies his own production,—his plan of operations is similar, yet different. At the outset he appears to have misgivings, and describes his "great work of fiction" as "rich in invention and novel combination (!), but," he adds, with the same fine sense of decorum just instanced, "as men of genius have a singularly keen appreciation of all that is good, and can pick out pearls where obscure scribblers could see nothing but

rubbish, the author has, perhaps, borrowed one or two things from other written sources, and incorporated them happily with the bulk of his invention." Then he cites the precedents of "Shakespeare, Virgil, Molé, Corneille, Defoe, Le Sage, Scott, Dumas, etc."—evidently quite unsuspicious that there are very wide distinctions between those great names and that of Mr. Charles Reade. At the close, however, that is, after the genuine samples which he adduces in refutation of the "Sham Sample Swindle," Mr. Reade gives us the familiar assurance, unaccompanied, this time, by any indication of an ulterior source, "I myself never saw *Le Portefeuille Rouge* until after the article in *The Mask* appeared—never saw it nor heard of it." And then—at this point let the reader again compare the long extract above with his recollections of *Foul Play*—we read, "I shall sue him [the writer in *The Mask*] for libel, and when we meet in the Court of Common Pleas, I shall repeat upon my oath as a Christian all the statements which now I make in these columns upon my honor as a gentleman."

It is not our affair to inquire how far the fulfilment of this promise is compatible with the avoidance of perjury, or whether, if practicable, the nicety of the operation is not likely to be such that even General Butler might take a lesson from it. To the truth of one passage, however, we volunteer our testimony. It is that about the "novel combination." How complex the mosaic of *Foul Play* may be we do not know, but most of the incidents which befall the boat's crew after the sinking of the *Proserpine* have been "combined" either from an article which appeared in *Harper's Monthly* several months before *Foul Play* began, or from its double.

VERSIFICATION.

II. MEASURE.

IN the examination of the leading metres of versification the iambic claims first place, from its universal popularity and the number of its varieties. Since "rage armed Archilochus with its appropriate Iambic" this measure has served as the vehicle not only of satire or invective, but of every phase of human action or emotion. It obtains in the tragic and comic dramas of ancient and modern times; and, if we except the hexameters of Homer, Hesiod, and Virgil, and the Sanscrit slōkas of the *Rāmāyana* and *Māhabhārata*, no important epic of the Aryan languages is composed in any other measure. And here, in entering on this department of our subject, we would apologize once for all for uniformly adopting the classic names of feet, and indeed for using the word *foot* itself, as a measure of *accent* as well as of *quantity*. If Latham or any other objector had supplied distinctive and available substitutes for these terms, we should gladly have employed them in examining our own accentual metres. Meanwhile we follow current usage rather than resort to arbitrary symbols or diffuse paraphrases.

The present desuetude of the classic senarian is owing, probably, to the more monosyllabic character of the Teutonic and Romance languages. Lines of twelve syllables naturally divide themselves in the middle unless the "sticking point" be bridged by long words or by the spirit and compactness of the verse. A sequence of as many as seven monosyllables, like the following, is exceptional in the Greek, but common in the English line:

"Αλλ' οὐ γὰρ ἡ μοι Ζεὺς δι κρύψας τάσσε."

The limping continuity of the English senarian has been happily caricatured by Pope in the onomatopoeic couplet:

"A needless Alexandrine ends the song,
That, like a wounded snake, drags its slow length along."

In the latter line the disunion, which, un cemented by animation, is always incident on the simultaneous ending of a word and the half-line, is widened by the comma. In the Greek plays this break was generally spanned by words of two or more syllables, and always mitigated by a peculiar method of scansion. Where, as in the dactylic or antispastic metres, the leading foot comprised more than three* "times," the lines were designated monometers, dimeters, etc., according to the number of *feet*; but where the leading foot, as in iambics or trochaics, did not exceed three times, the line was measured by *combinations of two feet*, and designated according to the number of such combinations or *dipodies*. It was by this rule, which was departed from only in the case of

anapestics, that the senarian or Alexandrine was known in Greek as the iambic trimeter. With all their dignity and taste, the tragedies of Racine and Drayton's *Polyolbion* scarcely justify or encourage the planting of this cumbrous exotic among the metric compositions of France or England. Yet, where the thought is animated and the line compact, an occasional Alexandrine may be at once graceful and impressive. Pope himself has given us a fine example of imitative harmony in the verse where Camilla

"Flies o'er the unbending corn and skims along the main;"

and his sneer notwithstanding, senarians end the classic stanzas of *Childe Harold* and the *Faery Queen*.

The great example of Shakespeare has established decasyllabic blank-verse as the metre of tragedy, the rich and varying cadences of the *Paradise Lost* make it a medium of expression for the epic muse. Rhymed heroics, in which the continuity of the sense and sound is more or less checked at the close of the couplet, are less suited to a lengthy epic; and the smooth flow and harmonious pauses of Pope's translation of Homer are unfortunately the very antithesis of the untrammelled numbers of the Ionian bard. The heroic couplet finds a field more adapted to its nature in the satires of Pope, Gifford, and Byron, as well as in shorter epic or didactic poems. The spirit and polish, the variety of structure and the unchecked flow of the sentiment, in the opening of the *Corsair*, however hard to be conjointly maintained in a lengthy effort, at least argue that this measure may be neither insipid nor monotonous.

The poetical romances of modern times have most usually been written in rhymed octosyllabics the romantic tales of Scott, Byron, and Moore, for the most part, assuming this form. But in most ballads, hymns, and other short poems the iambic tetrameter alternates with the trimeter; and in the stanzas so formed the first and third lines often, and the second and fourth always, rhyme. Our specimen is from the celebrated *Chevy Chase*:

"To drive the deer with hound and horn,
Erle Piercy took his way;
The child may rue, that is unborn,
The hunting of that day."

The catalectic often capriciously but gracefully replaces the complete tetrameter; but the shorter iambic varieties, like the following, which M. Boscaven quotes in his *Manuel de Versification*, are uncommon:

"Sur un buisson	"Est il heureux?
Le papillon	Amant frivole,
Voit il la rose,	Soudain il vole
Il s'y repose.	A d'autres jeux."
PARNY.	
"On doute	Tout passe!
La nuit.	L'espace
J'écoute,	Efface
Tout fuit!	Le bruit."

V. HUGO.

The line of fifteen syllables, with a pause between the eighth and ninth, is the ordinary form of the trochaic metre; and, excepting a difference of name, an absence of rhyme, and a greater license in its construction, the trochaic tetrameter catalectic of the Attic plays is identical with the measure of *Locksley Hall*, the *Psalm of Life*, or the following extract, from the serio-comic muse of "C. S. C.":

"Araminta! sweetest, fairest, Solace once of every ill,
How I wonder if thou bearest Mivins in remembrance still!
If that Friday night is banished Yet from thy retentive mind,
When the others somehow vanished, And we two were left behind;
When in accents low yet thrilling, I did all my love declare,
Mentioned that I'd not a shilling. Hinted that we need not care:
And complacently you listened To my rather long address—
Listening, at the same time, isn't Quite the same as saying 'Yes.'"

Longfellow's *Hiawatha* furnishes an example of the continuous use of trochaic tetrameters catalectic; but these lines, deserted by their companion verses, though piquant from their novelty, have the incongruity and incompleteness of a dance of men on Mr. Spurgeon's plan; while the shorter lines, without their longer and more energetic partners, may be compared to a fair bevy of danseuses whose motions, waxing languid, betray a longing for the interdicted society of men. Yet the quaint versification of *Hiawatha* is not unsuited to the subject, and grows surprisingly upon the admirers of that strange creation; and Mr. Longfellow has assuredly exempted his *Moravian Hymn*, in the shorter measure, from the charge of languor. Trisyllabic trochaics are found in Pope's *Ode on St. Cecilia's Day*:

"Dismal gleams, Fires that glow,
Dreadful screams, Shrieks of woe!
Sullen groans,
Hollow moans!"

An example from the French has been given in our remarks on *Rhyme*.

Turning to the dactyl, the query suggests itself in

the outset, "Why is it that the hexameter of the *Iliad*, the *Odyssey*, and the *Aeneid* has been either disused or misused in modern times, and is found in no great original epic?" The fault seems to lie in the absence of regular prosodical rules in modern languages, the shortness of their words, their accentual character and local differences of accent. In some, as in the English, we must add the great proportion of consonants, which, increasing the length of the written and printed line and extending its time of pronunciation, tends to render so long a verse tedious. Yet there are passages in *Evangeline*, including the grand prelude from which we give an extract, which might awaken hope in the most desponding that this measure, under master hands, may regain its long-lost honors:

"This is the forest primeval. The murmuring pines and the hemlocks, Bearded with moss and in garments green, indistinct in the twilight, Stand like Druids of old, with voices sad and prophetic, Stand like harpers hoar, with beards that rest on their bosoms. Loud from its rocky cavern the deep-voiced neighboring ocean Speaks, and in accents disconsolate answers the wall of the forest."

Shorter dactylic varieties are peculiarly animated, especially when the spondee is sparingly used. Such is Mr. Calverley's *Ode to Tobacco*, which our space and memory forbid us to complete:

"Thou who, when fears attack,
Bidd'st them avaunt, and black
Care, at the horseman's back
Perching, unseat;—
Sweet when the morn is grey,
Sweet when they've cleared away
Lunch, and at close of day
Possibly sweetest!"

The dactylic trimeter hypermeter generally lets its "jura paterna" be usurped by anapestics, as in Hervey's *Convict Ship*:

"O'er the glad wa'ves, like a chi'l'd of the su'n,
See the tall ve'ssel goes gallantly o'n;
Fu'll to the bree'ze she unbo'soms her sa'il,
And her pe'nnon streams o'nward, like Ho'pe, in the gale."

The spirited measure of *Lochiel's Warning* corresponds to the Greek anapestic systems. The latter, however, necessarily closed with a paræmic, or catalectic verse; and diverging from the ordinary rule, their lines were known as dimeters, though containing four feet of four "times" each. The presence of synapheia, or the prosodical continuity of the lines, was another peculiarity of these systemata—a short syllable ending in a consonant at the termination of a line being lengthened by the initial consonant of the next, and the final vowel of one being elided before that which commenced the next verse. In the English anapestic, too, the dactyl is tabooed; nor is the spondee admitted so indiscriminately or so often. Thus, for example, in the well-known passage from the *Light of the Harem*, commencing "There's a beauty for ever unchangingly bright," a spondee occurs in not more than every second line, and then invariably at the beginning of the verse. A cursory glance at any Greek systema—e. g., in the first chorus of the *Antigone*—will show a difference in these respects. The following are trimeters hypermeter alternating with trimeters:

"They ma'ndates make he'roes asse'mble
With vict'rious bright la'urels in vie'w:
They ba'mers make ty'ranny tre'mble,
When bo'me by the Re'd, White, and blu'e."

We rarely find the anapest in shorter lines, like these:

"When Fa'te had fast bou'nd her
With Sty'x nine times rou'nd her."

In the metric mazes of the Greek chorus it is a relief to meet anapestic systems in which even a tyro can recognize the rhythm. Among the vast licenses of antispastics or peonies, and the rapid transitions from one species of versification to another, it is hard to believe we are reading metric compositions. In spite of the prosodical correspondence of strophe and antistrophe, the idea recurs to the sceptical that, after all, the chorus is only a sort of recitative or chant to accompany the dance and music. But we must consider that some of our English versified medleys, however rhythmical or melodious they may seem to us, might appear far otherwise to a mispronouncing foreigner. We give one of the most musical of these heterogeneous compositions, by Campion, as quoted by Mr. Crowe:

"What's if a da'y or a mo'nth or a ye'ar
Crown thy del'ights with a tho'usand wi'shed conte'ntings,
Ca'nott a cha'nce of a ni'ght or an ho'ur
Cr'oss thy del'ights with a tho'usand sa'd ent'nings?
Fo'r'tune, ho'nor, bea'uty, yo'uth, a're but blo'soms dy'ng;
Wa'nton ple'asure, do'ing lo've, a're but sha'dows fly'ng.
All our joy's are but toy's,
I'le tho'ught dece'ving;
None hath pow'ur of an ho'ur
I'n their (sic) li've bere'iving."

Supposing the predicted New Zealander, who is to

* A long syllable was said to contain two "times," a short syllable one.

stand on London Bridge and contemplate the surrounding ruins, were to turn his attention to such a relic of a dead language, the rhyme would give him an advantage over the modern student of Greek choric meters, and would at least prevent a dozen arrangements of the lines to be a dozen difficulties to the ambitious scholar.

The ingenious efforts to restore the abandoned classic meters, from the time of Sir Philip Sydney to Tennyson's, are only illustrations of the adage that "Art labors in vain when she wanders from nature." The choriambs and hendecasyllabics, the sapphics and alcaicas, are dead and might as well be buried. Their unnatural revivification is like the raising of an apparition that surprises, but cannot abide. The imitation may abound in beauties of imagery or expression; but the form deters the *profanum vulgus*, while classical men compare it with its ancient models, and detect the flaws which our language seems to necessitate. Among the happiest of such adaptations is Mr. Tennyson's alcaic *Ode to Milton*:

"Whose guardian-angels, Gabriel, Abiel,
Starred from Jehovah's gorgeous armory,
Tow'r, as the deep-domed empyrean
Rings to the roar of an angel onset."

The following lines, the authorship of which escapes us, are apparently meant to be scanned as amphibrachs, feet unusual even in the classic plays or lyrics:

"But vail'ly thou w'arrest,
For th'is is al'one in
Thy po'wer to decl'are,
That 'in the dim forest
Thou he'ard'st a low mo'aning
And sa'w'st a bright lady surp'assingly fair."

But the tendency of the reader is to treat the first syllable as an unaccented base, and to scan the verses as dactyls. Similarly we can convert trochaics into iambics, and dactylic into anapestic metre. Indeed, in the last century the paradox was gravely maintained before the French Academy that Homer's versification is anapestic, and that the rhythm as well as its author designed it to be scanned accordingly.

LETTERS TO THE EDITOR.

THE TRASTOURIAN SCHOOL.

SECOND ARTICLE.—II.

(*Translation continued.*)

"IN the history of the Earth the phases of its origin have not been without their traditions, although no human being was their contemporary. All that has been related is the fact of a posterity of millions of millions. But those epochs, anterior as they were to humanity, have left behind them monuments of their passage. Authentic witnesses of the grand events of the earliest days, the language they employ deserves our closest attention. For my part, if I undertake rapidly to trace what the reader is about to peruse, I do so according to the impressions which I think I have drawn from their teachings.

"1st. Age of Cosmical Matter; its expansion throughout space. It is probable that its duration was longer than that of all the others. Incompetence of the professedly learned to find out the actual value of the sidereal temperature.

"2d. Age of the Agglomeration of Molecules, gradually taking their position in the form of concentric layers, with a density augmenting from the surface to the centre. The rubbing together of these molecules, whose power surpasses all our ideas of force, causes the primitive conflagration of the Earth. The duration of this period was less than that of the preceding one, but cannot be represented excepting by thousands of millions of years.

"3d. Age of the Cooling of the Earth's surface; crystallization of the rocks; descent of the ocean; tremendous clashing of the waters; titration and commingling of minerals at the surface; apparent state of chaos, owing to the multiplicity and grandeur of the phenomena. Still, they are subject to the universal law. Absolute reign of the mineral principle. A duration surpassing all ideas familiar to us of the lapse of time.

"4th. FIRST AGE OF LIFE. *First Period of that Age.* Permanent state of darkness on the surface of the Globe. Elementary preparation of vegetable germs and of the types of animal existence. Gradual precipitation of substances foreign to the atmospheric fluid.—*Second Period of that Age.* Appearance of the Sun. Gigantic plants and animals, which we call antediluvian, successively take birth, multiply, and fill the Earth; permanent state of conflict between the races of animals; war, under whatever form presented, bestial temperament. Absolute reign of animal nature.

"5th. Age of the First End. First extinction of the Sun; first disappearance of life on the Earth; total destruction of all antediluvian animals and plants; new combinations that modify and transform the conditions of the Sun and the Earth. They take place in the depth of a long night, the duration of which escapes our system of computation.

"6th. SECOND AGE OF LIFE ON EARTH. Progress of nature toward perfection, which it pursues perpetually; birth of a more perfect Sun and Earth; establishment up-

on the surface of the Earth of more perfect beings; appearance and reign of Man; epoch of deluges.

"In my article *Law of the Earth* [published in *The Round Table*, No. 180, July 4, 1868. Ed.] I treated of the retrogression of the heavens. I will now return to that subject in order to pass on to a class of phenomena that offer an interesting page in the geological history of our Globe.

"Although I do not presume to exhaust all the consequences that could result from the retrogression of the Sun, I will offer the following statement of results which, having long been denied, was at length admitted so soon as the study of books gave place to observation. The facts which have been collected and compared leave no doubt of a former universal cataclysm that devastated the Earth. But, the deluge admitted, a variety of hypotheses more or less inadmissible have been turned to for its explanation. The presence of erratic blocks upon the surface of the continents has, especially, given rise to flights of the imagination. For my part, I wish to disengage this great event and the disasters that accompanied it from all gratuitous suppositions. I will confine myself, however, to a brief description, for I have only proposed to myself to give a short summary and not a course of geology.

"In nature there is nothing large and nothing small; properly speaking, nothing at all that we estimate according to our methods of measurement. There is but one law and proportions. The deluge, as cause and effect, simply followed the rule that governs the overflow of brooks and channels after a heavy shower of rain.

"The increasing proximity of the Sun was the cause of the cataclysm known as the Mosaic deluge. Many centuries before that event, the great luminary smote with death all that lived under the torrid and in the northern temperate zone, plants and animals alike, dried up the water courses, emptied the largest rivers, and, by its incessantly increasing approach, menaced our hemisphere with general combustion. The waters, it was, that saved the World. The ocean was evaporated in mass, in an atmosphere that extended itself, from day to day, in greater altitudes, by virtue of its expansion by heat. This evaporation was not accomplished by an instantaneous act, but by a regular order of progression from which nature never departs. These vapors, heaped up in clouds, were able to intercept the burning action of the solar rays. The rain which was ready to pour down from the extreme limits of the atmosphere, being continually evaporated afresh, reascended to the uppermost zones before reaching the lower ones, which the radiation of a blazing soil rendered peculiarly apt to generate vapor.

"When the continual retrogression of the Sun had withdrawn it from the Earth, these ponderous collections of water transformed into clouds lost a considerable portion of their heat. This lowering of temperature commenced at the north, in the upper regions of the atmosphere. The waters that were highest up, in descending toward the Earth, and passing through the inferior regions, cooled them, and the condensation became general. The ocean precipitated itself, in its immensity, in the form of rain. It was a torrent-like descent, accompanied by tempests of unparalleled sublimity. Terrific winds whirling around the Earth; confabulations of lightning, in a state of permanence, tearing in its whole extent a maddened atmosphere. On the surface of the Planet were volcanic eruptions, explosions of internal convulsions, and earthquakes agitating the crust of the Globe, already tossed by the billows of an appalling flood. Ancient phenomena of a tempest matchless in terror! We have no words to describe the boundless and universal sweep of its awful ravages. Have we any measure by which to gauge its violence?

"No element of destruction was wanting to this grand cataclysm. The impetuous waters, tossing thousands of feet above the continents, rushed headlong over them, sweeping away forests, tearing open valleys, hollowing out abysses, and accumulating rain and death, pell-mell, in their passage.

"It will readily be conceived that in this fall and overflow of the seas the Globe must have detached from the poles blocks and bergs of ice of all dimensions, some of which were many leagues in length and breadth, and hundreds of feet in thickness. This fact, established by its own testimony, admits that sand, rounded pebbles, and enormous fragments of rock must have been caught up with these masses, in the same manner as similar substances are embedded in our modern glaciers. These floating islands of ice were swept onward by the violence of the current; in some places dashed to pieces by their concussion against obstacles that resisted sufficiently to bar the way, such as chains of mountains, and covering their slopes with fragments, elsewhere crushing the peaks of the less lofty eminences, grinding their salient points away, and furrowing their summits with the spurs of the hard rocks projecting from their bases.

"By degrees, as the melting of the ice went on, the heavy bodies which it had held fast with it, the sand, the rounded pebbles, and the erratic blocks, were abandoned to their own weight, and ranged themselves in the direction of the currents on the flanks of the mountains, on the hills, on the table-lands, and on the plains.

"The Sun, which had begun to withdraw from the Earth since more than two thousand years before the deluge, had left the polar glaciers time enough to form afresh.

"The forgetfulness of a past long gone by, and the condition of the sky, which, before the grand cataclysm, had re-

mained for about forty-eight centuries without rain, caused those of our race who survived the catastrophe to believe that it had never rained on earth previous to the deluge. This belief of a remote antiquity has been attested to us by tradition.

"It may well be that the Earth has been ravaged by several deluges. However, it only presents on its surface the evidence of the two last ones, written thereon in fableless characters. The current of the most recent one, or the Mosaic deluge, has marked its passage from the northwest to the southeast; the discernible traces of the other one, which occurred one hundred and fifty centuries earlier, may be recognized on a line that runs from the southeast to the northwest.

"On the surface of the earth there are elevations and depressions where the waters tend to flow off; but relatively to the astronomical position of our Globe, there is no upper or lower point. The Southern Hemisphere appears to us to be lower than we are, while to its inhabitants our Hemisphere appears to be under their feet.

"It is with ease that we can convince ourselves that, if the marks of the passage of the Boreal, or Mosaic deluge, can be plainly traced from the northwest to the southeast, similar marks left by the Austral, or Southern deluge, are no less visible from the southeast to the northwest. We have but to reverse the map of the World, so that the south shall be at the top and the north at the bottom, with the eastern coasts of the Asiatic Continent where the western coasts of the European Continent usually are. This process will allow us to perceive, instantly, that the water-chafed shores of the eastern part correspond with the similarly corroded outlines of the western portion, and that they resemble no other. There will be seen a conformity of features jutting out, the same essential depressions, like indentations of the land by the sea, resemblances of form in the configuration of the soil, analogous prolongations of wrecks, sharp and scalloped capes and headlands turned in sense coinciding with the direction of the two diluvian currents which, starting from the two opposite extremities of the Globe, have left the marks of their passage in two contrary directions.

"Now, the movement of the centre of the Earth's orbit, combined with the slow but constant retrogression of the Sun, brings our planet nearer to that luminary in summer and withdraws it in winter. Before this variation reaches its limits, winter will have disappeared altogether, in the time when the Sun shall have reached the sign of the Scorpion, to return, a certain number of centuries later, when the variation shall have advanced much further in its present direction. Thus it is that, in our days, the progression of the centre of the Earth's orbit tends to diminish more and more the rigors of winter. It may happen that the heats of summer now lose some of their intensity; but this is not due to any general movement of the heavens, and depends upon limited causes of a secondary character, which cannot impart to it a long duration. Heat will resume its empire with a power that will go on increasing until the day when the backward course or retrogression of the Sun shall have carried that body from Libra to the Virgin.

"The increasing proximity of the Sun in summer will gradually heighten the temperature of the middle latitudes. They will have, for several centuries, a continual spring, and, after that, the climate of the torrid zone. The Sun, still never ceasing to advance, the summers and their days becoming longer and longer, a burning heat will once more render the temperate zones uninhabitable. At the same time a mild temperature will have been substituted for the penetrating cold of the polar regions, where the ground is now frozen to the depth of one hundred feet below the surface. Wonderful forethought of Nature, which is preparing, in the silence of those solitudes of snow, the prodigious fertility which they will have when the rays of the Sun come to vivify them anew! It is toward those remote regions that emigration will then remove from all quarters, as it once rushed before the Mosaic deluge toward the south, where the fugitives of our race found safety in the high mountain-ranges. The veneration which the Asiatic people profess for high mountains explains the recollection of the ancient asylum preserved by tradition and consecrated by religious sentiment.

"The next Southern deluge will proceed from the southeast to the northwest, when the Sun, after having retrograded through the southern signs, shall stand in Leo.

"About forty centuries later the Sun will be, in winter, at its greatest distance from our hemisphere. The winters and the nights will be extremely long and cold; the summers and the days of short duration and by no means warm. France will have a biting climate; the Alps, the Pyrenees, and the neighboring countries will be covered with permanent glaciers. The icebergs of the Pole will invade Scotland, Norway, Sweden, nearly the half of European and Asiatic Russia, and will reach down to still more southern latitudes in North America.

"This period of bitter cold will be of long duration; it will terminate as it began, by abundant and continued rains. These will not cease to fall until such time as the Sun again approaches the sign of the Ram. The temperate zone will pass again through all the degrees of heat, to the burning climate that will render it uninhabitable. The same disastrous phenomena will be renewed, and another Northern deluge setting out from the northeast toward the southwest will submerge the Earth, unless our Planet

having before that time accomplished what is required of it, the Sun and life shall then have already ceased to exist. Then will be prepared, in new combinations, the *Third Age of Life*, which will give birth to a Sun, an Earth, and Beings more perfect than those existing in our days.

"GRANADA, Nicaragua, August 15, 1865."

We will add a few remarks to the foregoing: Several persons, who were in the intimacy of Dr. Trastour while he resided in the state of Louisiana, and to whom passages from his MS. were read and some of his astronomical diagrams shown, are of the opinion that the two articles *Law of the Earth and New Geological Study*—this last article should have been entitled *The Deluge*, or something else more appropriate—which have been so extensively reproduced by the press, embody a concise and summary statement of some of the phenomena arising from Dr. Trastour's system of our planetary Universe; and that the reason, no doubt, why these two articles were given for publication by its author, must have been to guard against a plagiarism which might easily have been attempted, considering that extracts of the MS. had been read, at different times, to many of the friends and acquaintances of the author.

Many of the assertions made in the two articles must, of course, have appeared rash and paradoxical to many of the readers, while others must have been enigmatical and unintelligible, and will continue to be so until the publication of Dr. Trastour's system unravels that which now seems so abstruse and far-fetched.

This much can be asserted: that the numerical figures, the number of years, and the phenomena given in both articles are not mere imaginary guesswork, but the precise result of mathematical calculations based upon the diagrams of a system which is said to be as simple and natural as it is rational.

Respectfully,

W. J. R.

NEW YORK, August 1, 1868.

REVIEWS.

All books designed for review in THE ROUND TABLE must be sent to this office.

THE DANGERS TO THE PUBLIC SCHOOLS.

II.

BESIDE the obstructions which educators encounter from the "religious difficulty," there remain others, really of a single class, to whose discussion in their reports the school officers return each year with an earnestness that shows how vital to the school systems their removal is felt to be. To Mr. Fraser's succinct statement of these, as embodied in his deductions from his tour of inspection, we now give place:

"First, I set down the apathy of the large classes of society, the highest and lowest, who do not use the system, or only partially use it; and are too short-sighted to see how they are to be benefited by it.

"Second, the inadequate appreciation of its benefits even by those who do use it, as shown by the indifference of parents; the prevalence of the notion that 'the cheapest teacher is the best,' the complaints that the education offered is not suited to the after-life of the scholar, etc.

"Third, the admitted increase, in spite of all the seeming attractions of the system, of the twin evils, absenteeism and truancy.

"Fourth, the cost of the system, which is becoming heavier year by year, and looks formidable in the aggregate; the burden of which will be more oppressively felt as the number of those whose direct enjoyment of its advantages is in an inverse ratio to the money they contribute to its support.

"Fifth, the growing feeling that more distinctly religious teaching is required, and that even the interests of morality are imperfectly attended to.

"Sixth, the attitude and intentions of the Roman Catholic hierarchy, silently and almost sullenly acquiescing in the system, but radically disatisfied with it, and watching for the opportunity to substitute their own cherished system of separate schools.

"Seventh, the very lukewarm support that it receives from the clergy of any denomination; and the languid way in which its claims on support and sympathy are rested on the higher motives of Christian duty.

"And eighth and last, the growth of wealth, a plutocracy, if not an aristocracy, to whom the idea of common schools will be as distasteful as all levelling ideas generally are."

The collective danger from these growing elements of weakness, amply attested as they are by the warmest friends of popular education, might be set down as far more formidable than the religious jealousies, were it not that it is possible to deal with them by a single comprehensive measure before they can attain maturity. To make their nature clear, we shall adduce at

considerable length the testimony of some of their closest observers, revealing the existence of a state of things deplorable in the extreme. And, first, we select a few out of many specific illustrations of the points we have not yet touched in Mr. Fraser's report—which all assert, in general terms, the apathy, meanness, and distaste that characterize the feelings of large classes with regard to the schools:

"In a very large number of cases a small majority vote down all propositions for building or even repairing school-houses, thus disregarding their obligations as good citizens or neighbors. As the law now stands, there is no effectual remedy for such neglect. It would be unpardonable cruelty to make attendance at school compulsory when we have no better accommodations to offer the children."—*New York Report*, p. 46.

"Another says, 'I object to free schools. Make every parent pay for tuition, and don't tax those who don't use the public schools for their own offspring.' This is another device to get the rich by themselves and the poor by themselves. Practically this very thing is done at this very day in many a country town in New England,—and with what results? The schools are, in such cases, so forlorn, the teachers so ill-paid, and the local obstacles to progress so great, that a constant outcry of dissatisfaction arises from all who are intelligent enough to see that a good school, at whatever cost, is one of the greatest blessings which a community can desire. All who can afford it resort at great cost to other means of education, and the pauper school remains for the few who can get no better."—*New Englander*, p. 126.

"A few years since a denizen of the district left a few hundred dollars, the income to be expended in support of the school, provided they should read and spell in school at the same time, and just as many times a day as they did when he was a boy. Last year they received a *Webster's Dictionary*, in common with other districts, from state appropriations. Report says they have lately sold it for eight dollars!"—*Ibid.*

"As an illustration of the striking contrasts often observed in contiguous districts or towns, let me present one district where, in an excellent building, are schools well graded, admirably taught, liberally supported, supplied with wall-maps, charts, and apparatus, the pride of the people, and with reason, meeting the wants of all classes, the rich and the poor, leaving no room or demand for private schools, while in an adjoining and wealthy district of the same town a very cheap teacher keeps a poor school in a wretched shanty so long only as the pittance of the public money will serve. The wealthy families patronize private schools, and resist all efforts to lay a tax, either to build a new school-house, or repair the old one, or support the school."—*Connecticut Report*, p. 35.

"In another town the visitors report: 'Most of our citizens regard popular education with shocking indifference, or as a subject easily evaded, and pauper-like, buried from thought at least expense. Little is done for our schools. Our men of means are not willing to be taxed for them. They say, "Let every man educate his own." I'm not going to be taxed to educate any one.'"—*Ibid.*, p. 36.

"The great obstacle to the success and efficiency of our schools is the miserable parsimony of the people. This discourages all enlightened effort to improve them. The people will support no reform that is liable to cost anything."—*Ibid.*, *Local Visitor's Report*, p. lxvii.

As to truancy, New York not unfairly represents most of the states, Massachusetts and Rhode Island perhaps excepted:

"The number of children in the rural districts, between 5 and 21 years of age, is reported at 844,259, and the whole attendance at school at 592,511, while the average daily attendance was 263,401. The aggregate attendance is, therefore, 70 per cent. of the entire number, and the average attendance only 31 per cent."—*New York Report*, p. 57.

Second in importance to no other matter relating to the schools is the horrible delinquency in respect to instruction. We again quote at length, though but a few from many instances:

"Women have already taken the places once filled by young men. Many of these ladies are young and inexperienced, and have had no other advantages than the district school of the country town. They are bright and earnest, and have native adaptation to the teacher's work, but unless they have some training for it their schools will be so poor that only the poor will accept their instructions. New Haven and Hartford, Boston and Springfield, can get along without state normal schools; but for the country towns it is indispensable that some means should be contrived for the training of young women for the work of teachers, or otherwise pauper schools alone will flourish in the rural districts."—*New Englander*, p. 125.

"In this state [New York], while the schools are in session, there are about sixteen thousand teachers employed; whereas, the number of different persons actually so engaged during each year exceeds twenty-six thousand. Of this number, leaving out of the count those employed in the cities and large villages, there are few that make teaching their vocation. They spend only a short time in the work, and accordingly have little interest in qualifying themselves thoroughly. The trustees of the rural school districts must employ such persons or none. The services of the better class of teachers are monopolized by the cities and villages."—*New York Report*, p. 49.

"Teachers are required to obtain from the county boards of examiners certificates of 'good moral character' as well as certificates of qualification to teach certain branches; but mainly, because of circumstances beyond the control of the boards, the certificates issued by them as to the character of teachers are the merest formalities. The county boards have but little, if any, further means of judging of the moral character of applicants than may be obtained from the general appearance and conduct of the applicants while being examined, and they are compelled, therefore, to form their judgements in this regard on evidences entirely or mainly unreliable."—*Ohio Report*, p. 26.

"It is also well known that of the twenty-one thousand teachers annually employed in our schools not over three thousand are persons of considerable culture, even in a purely scholastic point of view; that over one-third of the remaining eighteen thousand are under twenty years of age, and are destitute both of experience as teachers and of special preparation for the work of teaching; and finally, that from one-third to one-half of the entire number have not a fair business knowledge of the six elementary branches named in the law, known as the common branches. The question then, How may men and women of better native ability and of higher moral, professional, and scholastic culture be secured as teachers in our schools? is one of first importance. Experience has shown that two things are indispensable under existing circumstances to secure this object: first, better wages must be paid teachers, and the occupation or profession of teaching must be more highly esteemed. Teaching must be so rewarded both by money and honor as to make the calling as acceptable and desirable as other callings requiring like ability and culture. Ability and culture go and stay where they are paid best and honored most."—*Ibid.*, p. 66.

Here we must add the fullest calculations concerning teachers' wages for which we have been able to procure data. We have the average wages paid to men

and women respectively in thirteen states—Maine, New Hampshire, Vermont, Massachusetts, Connecticut, Ohio, Indiana, Illinois, Michigan, Wisconsin, Iowa, Kansas, California—in which the average varies, for men, from \$24 35 a month (in New Hampshire) to \$74 a month (in California); and for women, from \$10 16 a month (in Maine) to \$62 (in California). The average of monthly wages throughout these thirteen states is, for men, \$36 68, for women \$21 82—which represent annual incomes of \$220 and \$131, assuming that they continue to be received for six months, the average duration of the schools being, in fact, less than this. One more citation in respect to tuition will complete our extracts:

"The variety of text-books on the same subject, which I find in very many schools, is a great hindrance to classification and progress. Each new teacher is allowed to introduce his favorite authors. New scholars from other districts, towns, or states retain their old books. In one school I found seven classes in geography, where, with uniformity of books they would be reduced to three, to the great improvement of the school. In another school, with nineteen scholars, there were six classes in spelling, seven in reading, five in arithmetic, and seven in geography. The result is 'confusion confounded,' the embarrassment of the teacher, and discouragement of the pupil. Instead of system, classification, and thoroughness, the teacher's time is wasted on a medley of text-books. When no two have the same book, the recitations of each individual by himself must be hurried and superficial."—*Connecticut Report*.

Diverse as these threatenings of failure are in their manifestations, they are all clearly traceable to a single cause. The public school system, as now organized, fails to inspire parents with such a sense of its value and importance as would move them to be at any pains or expense on its account. The one master of the teachers is enough to show the futility of trusting that time and the spontaneous growth of just popular perceptions will work any such reform as must come before the schools can be satisfactory. What manner of creature the average country teacher is has just been told by those who best know him, what every teacher ought to be is sketched in the article of *The Southern Review*, the last on our list, which ought to be considered by every one who has to do with education. This ideal teacher should be one whom every parent must approach as at the least his equal, and in whom every pupil must discern such accomplishments as awaken reverence and respect. The first qualifications to be insisted upon, says the Southern writer, is that the teacher "be a gentleman. For a gentleman is one who lives justly among men and humbly before GOD. Be assured that a *gentleman* is competent to do what he professes to be competent to do. The mere knowledge of school-books any *gentleman* has who says he has it. The gift of impartation of that knowledge any *gentleman* has who says he has it.

With such a man we may indeed feel secure, and for this as much as for any other reason—that he is our equal in all the essentials of manhood; that he can neither be ridiculed with justice nor insulted with impunity, and consequently our sons will be as safe with him as his son would be with us." The ideal may be thought absurdly high. It is certainly unattainable under any form the existing school system can assume by its own unaided development—a system which, for the most part, offers only cheap work to be done, and attracts only a cheap class of persons to do it, and which must be placed upon a thoroughly renovated foundation before it can cease to keep the best talent out of the profession which, more than any other except the ministry, requires the best. In fine, the change which is needed involves, among other things, that in its social consideration and in its attainable prizes of distinction and of reward teaching shall be on a par with the other learned professions, and at least as inaccessible to unworthy candidates. Along with this transformation should come as notable a one in the status of the schools. They must cease to be a thing to which men give grudgingly, if at all, doubtful of the prospect of getting the money's worth. They must be made irresistibly attractive, embodying motives to insure the attendance and support of all classes—the of the careless or ignorant, indifferent about their children's education, and of the sedulous who now distrust, and with reason, the influences and tuition of the public schools. Unless within the lifetime of this generation this new state of things is more or less effectually established, we shall have let pass the opportunity of counteracting the influences whose continued operation will certainly destroy public education.

The reader will have seen that, in this as in any other country, there exists but one source of powers at all adequate to work so fundamental a reform or continue to supply the requisite impulse. Such powers belong solely to the general government; yet, if it were only out of deference to the doctrinaire and the opponents of centralization, it would be at the least inexpedient, as well as hopelessly revolutionary, to contemplate the transfer of public education

* I. *The Education of the People in England and America.*—*Blackwood's Magazine*, January, 1868.

II. *Public School Education at the North.*—*The Southern Review*, July, 1868.

III. *Popular Education.*—*The Catholic World*, May, 1868.

IV. *Middle-Class Education in Ireland.*—*The Month*, August, 1868.

V. "What Sort of Schools ought the State to Keep?" By Prof. D. C. Gilman, Yale College.—*The New Englander*, January, 1868.

VI. *The Report of the Schools Inquiry Commission.*—*The Saturday Review*, March 7, 14, 21, April 18, 1868.

VII. *Special Report on the Present State of Education in the United States and other Countries, etc.* By Victor M. Rice, Superintendent of Public Instruction of the State of New York. Albany, 1868.

VIII. *Fifteenth Semi-Annual Report of the Superintendent of Public Schools of the City of Boston.* Boston, 1868.

IX. *Annual Report of the Board of Education of the State of Connecticut, etc.* New Haven, 1868.

X. *Fourteenth Annual Report of the State Commissioner of Common Schools to the Governor of the State of Ohio.* Columbus, 1868.

XI. *Official Circular of the National Department of Education.* No. 13. August, 1868. Washington.

XII. *The Schoolmaster.*—*The Southern Review*. January, 1868.

Note.—Through a blunder of the printer there were omitted from the first part of this article, printed last week, the list of titles just given and the extract from Mr. Fraser's report—both of which were needed for the completeness of the paper. The latter, which will be found above, should have followed the second paragraph in last week's article.

to a department at Washington. But it is needless to disturb any part of the school system which already exists. It is only necessary to call into operation an influence which, working loss nowhere, shall produce a rearrangement of the component elements of the fabric like that which follows the application of an electric current. This process is, in brief, the employment of the patronage of the national as well as of the state governments as an incentive to win distinction in the schools. The argument which has followed Mr. Jenckes's civil service bill, for reorganizing the bestowing of offices on the basis of competitive examinations, has demonstrated beyond room for doubt the necessity of such a change to the efficient and honest administration of the government. It needs only that these examinations should be connected with the public schools to insure the government better servants than it is likely to get by other means, and at the same time to provide the success of the first essential of popular government.

The practical working of the system should be something in this fashion—that all public schools which conformed to certain necessary standards should be eligible to present candidates for the offices to be bestowed by competitive examinations or otherwise;—that pupils who acquitted themselves creditably should have their course of study directed, with the consent of parents, and by the judgement of teachers who have noted their progress, toward the pursuits for which they have manifested most aptitude;—that to certain of these pupils, as they became prepared, should be awarded the cadetships in the Military and Naval academies, the postmasterships, the clerkships in the Washington departments and custom-houses, the multitudinous positions connected with the revenue, the minor diplomatic appointments, all the gifts, in fine, which are now bestowed with little reference to public interests, and with consequences of gross corruption, maladministration, and loss;—that to other classes of pupils should be afforded opportunities of prolonging their education, or directing it into such channels as fit their genius; supporting them, for instance, through a thorough course of normal school training, or providing them scholarships in schools of medicine, law, theology, technology, engineering, mining, general science, art, etc. In all this, it will be seen, there is no demand for the direct interposition of the government in the way of founding a single institution, or of assuming any outlay beyond the matter of the scholarships; and the cost of these, however munificent or numerous, would be but a tithe of the saving insured in the mere working expenses of the government, to say nothing of a general economical administration. But the change in the schools would be incalculable. Parents would no longer grudge the expenditure which opened the way for their children to lifelong honorable employment. There would be no stint in supplying the appurtenances of efficient schools, no indifference as to the acquirements of teachers upon whose competence depended in so tangible a degree the future of the tax-payers' boys and girls. The public service thus made honorable, aspirants to it would be wanting in no social grade, and the dangerous alienation of the wealthy classes, to which Mr. Fraser alludes, would receive a check. Above all, by this means—and so far as we can see, by this means only—would the position of the schoolmaster be invested with that importance, and that assurance of promotion and reward, without which teaching can never become a profession; and thus, for the first time, invoking the assistance of our ablest men and women, while we afforded them advantages of preparation as yet unattainable, we should put our schools into the only hands that can make them deserving of support.

The plan might easily be further elaborated, and the reciprocal benefits to the public service and the schools enforced by a hundred lines of argument or illustration. But these will so readily suggest themselves that we need not lengthen this article further than by indicating one of the incidental features that would be imported into the school system. This is the gain of a certain uniformity in instruction throughout the land, which yet would not interfere with the flexibility of the system in adapting itself to the varying wants of different communities and localities. The French martinism that must be involved in a detailed course of common-school study promulgated by a bureaucrat at Washington would manifestly be undesirable. Not so the requirement that at fixed points in his career every pupil, everywhere, shall have given a certain degree of attention to determined elementary studies. Thereby there would cease to be a waste of time, when pupils pass from school to

school, in bringing them to a common starting point; and there would be established a standard, so that the credentials attesting the accomplishment of a certain course would afford approximate assurance to the employer, in any part of the land, of the applicant's possession of the requisite attainments. Thus, too, would be everywhere accomplished the thorough gradations of primary, grammar, high, and normal schools, which Mr. Philbrick's admirable Boston report shows to exist in Massachusetts, and which Michigan—perhaps other states—supplements by free university education. The theme would prove endless if we were to attempt to pursue it to its end. We hope at least that we have said enough to suggest to the laborers in the field of popular education what we believe to be the only way of escape from the frustration of their labors, as well as the only assurance of their fruition. Where the difficulty lies is obvious enough—in the opposition to be encountered in wresting from the politicians the prizes they put to such base uses. But the achievement would repay the struggle—*Mer' ayōva στέφανον.*

RECENT EDUCATIONAL BOOKS.

L.—SCIENCE AND PHILOSOPHY.

OUR list of text-books in mathematical and physical science is so long as to oblige us to postpone, for the present, any general comment, and proceed at once to the examination of the books individually, from the foundation upwards.

Walton's *Primary Arithmetic*¹ is one of the best books of its kind. The pictures are designed to be objects of inspection and study to the young beginner, and quite a large proportion of the questions refer to a picture of some kind. It is thorough, attractive, and practical. His *Intellectual Arithmetic*² has no special merits, except a pleasing variety of practical examples. The plan assumes considerable progress on the part of the student between the first and the last pages, but probably not more than is accomplished in our best schools. The method of the author, however, is noticeably different from most of his contemporaries, who diffuse the same amount of science through two or three books.

The *Written Arithmetic*³ contains such a course as is usually found in so-called practical arithmetics. There is a good variety of examples well arranged and well printed. Mensuration and the metric system occupy a due portion of the book. Much space is saved by an ingenious use of tabulated numbers upon cards, from which an almost unlimited number of problems may be given. Two lists of questions, with answers, are prepared in separate small books. Part second alone contains five thousand problems and answers.

The *Putnam Drill and Review Cards*⁴ contain graded examples in arithmetical operations as high as percentage. They are tabulated and abbreviated in an ingenious manner. The key is a bound book of 84 pages, and is convenient for examination and reviews.

Felter's *First Lessons in Numbers*⁵ is an illustrated book of a hundred pages. The pictures are well executed, and afford good suggestions to the teacher. The set of counters to be used with the book, and of which specimens are exhibited on the last pages, form a valuable adjunct to the best means heretofore used to convey instruction in the first steps of arithmetic. This book is a decided improvement upon the former first step in this series, with which we had to find some fault last year.

His *Primary Arithmetic*⁶ has 160 pages of carefully graded examples. The pictorial illustrations are few in number, but good in quality. Those accompanying the tables of money, weights, and measures, though simple, are well designed.

The new edition of his *Intellectual Arithmetic*⁷ we consider one of the best of the series. We can find no fault with the arrangement of the subjects or grading of the examples. The model solutions, or "forms," as they are termed, are well placed and, what is better, well expressed. We gladly miss that close packing of examples upon which this author sometimes exercises his ingenuity. This book would be still further improved by the omission of the few pictures in the present edition. They do not form good illustrations of the subject. For example, the three-fifths of the mysterious thing on the sixtieth page would hardly bear the addition of two more such fifths, without making more than a fair unit. No such illustration as is here attempted can be necessary in a book of this grade. These remarks do not apply to the sea-side tableau which decorates the cover;

¹ *A Pictorial Primary Arithmetic, on the plan of Object Lessons.* By G. A. Walton, Principal of Oliver Grammar School, Lawrence, Mass. Boston: Brewer & Tileston. 1868.

² *An Intellectual Arithmetic.* With an introduction to written arithmetic. The same.

³ *A Written Arithmetic.* For Common and Higher Schools, to which is added a complete system of reviews in the form of dictation exercises. The same.

⁴ *The Putnam Drill and Review Cards; with a Key.* By Francis Cogswell. Boston: Brewer & Tileston.

⁵ *Felter's First Lessons in Numbers.* By S. A. Felter, A.M. New York: Charles Scribner & Co. 1868.

⁶ *Felter's Primary Arithmetic.* The same.

⁷ *Felter's Analysis of Intellectual Arithmetic.* The same.

that, at any rate, is enjoyable. The rude sun-dial, drawn on a sandy slope; the figure 6 turned the wrong way, at the nearest end of the dial; and the discrepancy between the sun and the watch, one of which is half an hour wrong, form an attractive picture. The metric system receives a fair share of attention, and, like all of Mr. Felter's works, this one bears marks of careful and laborious preparation.

The new *Mental Arithmetic*, of the Appleton series,⁸ contains a set of well graded examples, divided into sections. No rules are given, but, after each new variety of example, a model solution follows. This single recommendation in the preface is worthy of notice: "Whenever any particular form of analysis has become perfectly familiar, it will be well to omit it and require immediate answers." There is but little doubt that the tedious multiplication of steps in our mental arithmetics, when insisted upon, tends to any other results than the quickening of the mathematical powers. The few pictorial illustrations are good.

Mr. Eaton's *Elements*⁹ is designed to supply the wants of pupils who spend but a short period in our common schools, and to afford an introduction, at least, to those portions of arithmetic that apply to ordinary business. The fundamental rules, United States money, and percentage are well presented in carefully graded examples. Processes are taught rather than principles, which was to be expected from the object to be accomplished. The model solutions are well presented; though in most cases the explanatory notes will require interpretation by an instructor.

His *Common-School Arithmetic*¹⁰ is an advanced course upon the same plan as the *Elements*, and is designed for pupils who have not time for an extended course of study, but who have sufficient maturity to master the ordinary difficulties of the science. The principles to be applied in the ordinary business of life are well presented; solutions and explanations are abundant. The metric system is expounded, the unit and its origin explained, and a variety of examples given. We are glad to notice in this book a tendency to get out of the beaten track of arithmetic-makers, and apply theoretic principles to a wider range of subjects. It is generally assumed by authors that the pupil is far more likely to keep a shop than not, and they partially provide for the remote possibility of his taking to measuring something, as a surveyor in a small way, but no chance of his selecting mechanism or any other branch of engineering is provided for. We notice in the present work some problems relating to rain-fall, relative densities of metals, difference in time, etc.; and we hope that some time such applications may embrace specific gravity, expansion of bodies under effects of heat, density of air under pressure, the correction of measuring and weighing instruments, and a score of others.

The *Elementary Algebra*¹¹ is a new book of the Eaton series, presenting the science in the most elementary way, and affording a fair introduction to higher works. The typography is excellent.

Professor Loomis's *Algebra*¹² is a revision of his former work, and is offered as a treatise sufficiently complete to afford a preparation for the higher branches of mathematics. An excellent feature of the former work is retained—that of re-stating each problem in a general form after it has been offered as a numerical question. The philosophical method which distinguishes the author's other works is equally marked in the book before us. A leading merit of the series we consider to be that it is prepared with the most thorough appreciation of the difficulties the student meets at each new step. Considerable space is given to numerical equations of higher degrees.

*Navigation Simplified*¹³ professes to be a book for students who intend to become seamen, but that the work has not been done by competent hands every page bears testimony. The examples are undoubtedly of a thoroughly practical character, but the scarcity of explanation of any kind, and the poor quality of that afforded, render the work unfit for those requiring elementary instruction. The authors say in the preface: "Should any be disposed to criticise the methods of illustration or the terms employed, we will only say that we have endeavored to adapt these to the ideas of a class of men whose advantages for scholastic attainments are supposed to be limited, and whose notions of geography and astronomy have been obtained 'before the mast' rather than in the school-room." We can see no evidence of this endeavor. On the other hand, we find plenty of terms from both practical and theoretical science used freely and without explanation.

Mr. Warren's *Manual of Geometrical Drawing*¹⁴ affords complete instruction, with an abundance of examples in all departments of so-called industrial drawing. The text is designed for the pupil in schools or for the draughtsman studying by himself. Students, in or out of academies, who

⁸ *A Mental Arithmetic.* By G. P. Quackenbos, A.M. New York: D. Appleton & Co. 1868.

⁹ *The Elements of Written Arithmetic.* Combining analysis and synthesis adapted to the best mode of instruction for beginners. By James S. Eaton, M.A. Boston: Taggard & Thompson. 1868.

¹⁰ *The Common-School Arithmetic.* The same.

¹¹ *Eaton's Elementary Algebra.* Designed for the Use of High School and Academy. By William F. Bradbury, A.M. The same.

¹² *A Treatise on Algebra.* By Elias Loomis, LL.D. Revised edition. New York: Harper & Bros. 1868.

¹³ *Comer's Navigation Simplified: A Manual of Instruction in Navigation as practised at Sea.* Compiled at Comer's Commercial College. New York: Harper & Bros. 1868.

¹⁴ *Manual of Elementary Geometrical Drawing, involving three dimensions.* By S. Edward Warren, C.E. New York: John Wiley & Sons. 1868.

are fitting for pursuits which have to do with artificial constructions of any kind of which the profession of engineering takes cognizance, will find in this manual an important part of their instruction. The author is well known by his other works in kindred branches of science; and, considering the wants of American students, it is but just to say that his books have no equals in the English language.

The same author's delightful supplement to descriptive Geometry¹⁶ is prepared with the completeness and precision of arrangement which distinguishes his *Orthographic Projections*. The recent requirement of our scientific schools of a knowledge of descriptive geometry, before entering upon the higher scientific courses, will direct the attention of the academies to the introduction of this heretofore neglected branch, and will add a new interest to its applications. The study of shades and shadows may be classed among the scientific recreations, but forms a highly important part of an engineering course, and as such is treated by Prof. Warren.

Dr. Bledsoe's *Philosophy of Mathematics*¹⁷ has very recently been before us for review (*The Round Table*, No. 177, June 13), when we gave an account of his line of argument which we need not now repeat. Both as a mathematical and a critical essay, it is one of the most skillful productions of many a day. But it is designed for the makers of textbooks, not for their students, and it does not come within the scope of our present task. All lovers of mathematics, however—all believers in Newton, Pascal, Leibnitz, Carnot—all who have a voice in the selection of geometrical textbooks for young pupils, or in the direction of mathematical science—will find their pleasure as well as their profit in this little volume, whose clearness and vivacity are such that, once begun, it is more easily finished than laid aside.

The new editions of Cornell's geographies,^{18, 19} present some new features which are decided improvements, although the former editions had been heartily approved by experienced teachers. The improvements are of the kind we suggested last year, and consist chiefly in presenting physical geography as a part of the rudimentary course. The maps in the books now before us indicate by the various colors different physical features of the earth's surface, while a scarlet line serves to separate the political sections. Heretofore in most maps the violent contrasts of color which separate states have served to render obscure all topographical symbols. In the present maps the water surfaces are of an uniform blue tint, while the land masses are of a contrasting color, and upon this latter are carefully and distinctly represented the plains, plateaus, and mountains, as well as the lakes and rivers. Political boundaries are marked with distinctness by a colored line. The *Primary Geography*¹⁷ has the merit of plenty of illustrations, good type, and well-arranged questions. One fault, which we think is no slight one, is that of misleading representation in the general maps. The mountains in the map of North America, for instance, are so drawn as to convey a wrong impression. The Rocky Mountains are represented as forming a continuous straight line, while the Cascade and Sierra Nevada are omitted entirely. This is partially corrected in the map of the United States, but the impression in the mind of the student is not set right till he gets to the higher book. The objection is not that minute features are omitted, but that those that are given are wrong. Rudimentary instruction does not necessarily involve misrepresentation. The *Intermediate Geography*¹⁸ bears the marks of later revision. It contains, in addition to the material of the old *Intermediate*, a valuable section on physical geography. The usual tabular information is given in the latter part of the book. All suggestions in regard to drawing maps are left for the teacher; otherwise it is the most complete and beautiful geography we have yet seen.

Guyot's *Elementary Geography*¹⁹ is a new addition to the series so favorably noticed and so widely introduced last year. The new book is for the same grade of classes as the *Primary Geography*, but differs materially from it in being adapted for study and recitation. It is provided with good questions, and it contains also good suggestions respecting the study of the maps. The peculiarity and the excellence of the Guyot series consists in the prominence given to the physical features of the earth. The maps are designed to present at a glance the relative positions of mountains, plateaus, and plains. It may be safely added that no one can feel authorized to dispute their correctness. We wish, however, that they had been better printed.

Prof. Guyot's *Drawing Cards*²⁰ are simply "blanks," containing the proper meridians and parallels for the hemispheres, and the separate grand divisions of the globe. The folio-cover contains the directions for drawing the maps by "construction lines," the same as are given in the atlases belonging to the series.

Mitchell's *First Lessons in Geography*²¹ is a later book than the remainder of this series.^{22, 23} It is designed as an introduction to the primary, but has not been prepared with the care that the subject required. The criticism applies equal-

ly to text and illustrations. We hope no children are fated to get the first impressions of the earth's form from the first picture in this book.

The *Primary Geography*²³ is better; the illustrations are tasteful, and the maps good. Considerable importance is attached to a mention of the leading historical events of each section, in connection with its geography, and the book is suitable for young beginners. Alaska is represented throughout the series as a territory of the United States.

The *New Intermediate Geography*,²³ with its excellent maps and neat views of places, is one of the most attractive looking school-books we have seen. Physical features are not prominently set forth either in text or maps. The maps are neatly colored, but to represent political divisions only. The pronouncing vocabulary is unusually large.

The *New School Geography*²⁴ is a handsome text-book of 456 pages, with a separate atlas. The illustrations, of which there are over two hundred, are all in good taste, and well designed to illustrate the text, except, perhaps, the aneroid barometer which appears throughout the series over the title of *Mariner's Compass*. The forty-four maps of the atlas are well executed and well filled with designated localities. The only fault we find is in the amount. There is too much of the descriptive and political geography for ordinary schools; and, on the other hand, mathematical geography is treated too briefly.

The *Physical Geography*,²⁵ which is the fifth book of the Mitchell series, is in the atlas form and contains 164 pages. Its author, Prof. Brockelsby, is well known through his other works, which we believe are, without exception, models of school text-books. The copper-plate maps, of which there are thirteen, are excellent, the only unsatisfactory one, in our estimation, being the first, where the type is relied upon rather than the shading to distinguish the separate land forms. In the other charts the sections of different character are distinguished by color or shade, and, in some cases, by methods striking and original, but in all tasteful and effective.

An excellent feature in an elementary geographical work is presented in Warren's *Primary Geography*,²⁶ in the devoting of a large space to familiarizing the pupil with all the terms employed in the science. It is not simply a chapter of definitions, but a series of lessons occupying a third of the entire book. The remainder, devoted to political geography, is unexceptionable.

The *Common-School Geography*²⁷ is mostly devoted to political geography, the physical and mathematical divisions being brief. The maps are excellent, but exhibit political divisions rather than physical ones. If this is a deficiency it is probably compensated for in the author's *Physical Geography*, which is evidently regarded as the best in use. Mr. Apgar's modification of Guyot's system of map-drawing in *The Common-School Geography* is, with much propriety, treated briefly.

Ritter's *Comparative Geography*²⁸ is neither a treatise on physical geography nor geology, although it somewhat resembles both. It is a generalization of our knowledge of the structure of the surface of the globe. The author describes negatively; at least his own work speaks thus of geographical works in general:

"A systematic exposition of geography is very seldom to be found in them. A harmony of parts, a true harmony, is very rarely attained in their pages. They are at the foundation only arbitrary and unmethodical collections of all facts which are ascertained to exist throughout the earth. They are arranged according to countries or great natural divisions; but the relation of one great natural division to another, the mutual and immense influence of one country on another, is never mentioned. The description of Europe follows in them to-day the same order in which Strabo set the pattern. The facts are arranged as the pieces of a counterpane, as if every one existed in itself and for itself, and had no connection with others."

The discussion is limited to the land masses, and such features as belong to them. Climate and the movements of ocean and atmosphere are only incidentally referred to. Though not quite fitted for use as a school text-book, no instructor of this or kindred subjects who has not mastered it should be regarded as competent to his work.

Professor Tenney's *Geology*²⁹ is a very elementary work, and is much more devoted to paleontology than geology. However well adapted for the use of young students, it is certainly not fitted for the teacher, who ought to acquire his knowledge from some more extensive source than Mr. Tenney's book. Nevertheless it is well and pleasantly written, correct in its descriptions, and will be useful to very young students, if such should study geology at all. The index is by no means a good one, many words of importance being

omitted. This is the case with *Limulus trilobite*, and a number of others we have looked for. The type is large and clear, and the illustrations excellent.

We know of no better text-book of geology in the English language than that of Prof. Dana,³⁰ and certainly none other in use in our schools is at all equal to it. The author, while omitting much that is uninteresting or unimportant, has preserved all of geological science which the general student ought to acquire as an element of a good education. As in the *Manual of Geology*, of which the present volume is an abridgement, especial prominence is given to the geological formations met with in America. The account given of the emergence of North America cannot fail to engage the attention of the American student, who is made acquainted by its perusal not only with one way in which dry land is formed, but obtains a clear idea of the geological geography of his own country. In the department of paleontology we do not find as much fulness of detail as we should have liked, and several of the most remarkable American fossils are passed over in silence. Thus, we discover no mention of the Hadrosaurus, the remarkable reptile described several years since by Prof. Leidy as being found in New Jersey, and the fossils of the green sand formation of that state are scarcely touched upon. The wonderful remains found in the Miocene beds of the Mauvaises Terres in Nebraska are, however, mentioned with sufficient fulness for a college text-book. The illustrations are exceedingly good, and the style is so clear that any one of ordinary powers can understand the author's meaning without difficulty. We repeat that we regard Prof. Dana's book as the very best for schools or for the general reader now before the public.

The great interest which has of late been awakened for the study of natural history is an evidence—and by no means a feeble one—of its great importance. The contemplation of animated nature; the examination of the lifeless masses which lie buried in the earth or are scattered over its surface; the association and connection of mineral substances; the structure of crystals—all serve to enlarge the sphere of our intellectual enjoyments, and afford us the means of improving in wealth, intelligence, and civilization. In the words of a great writer, natural history "is everywhere present—it meets you in the air, on the earth, or on the water; it can be brought into your closet, or surround you at the fireside." To those who are beginning the practical study of this science the work of Mr. Goodrich will prove an excellent guide.³¹ The instructive chapters on astronomy and chemistry are short, that greater space may be given to geology, which, differing from other sciences in the one material respect that it contemplates not only what is but what has been, affords greater scope for extensive speculation. Under the head of zoölogy we have a general sketch of the forms and habits of animals, the families and groups to which they belong; and the mammalia, birds, fishes, and reptiles are extensively treated.

Dr. Packard, of the Peabody Academy of Science, has issued the first number of a serial to consist of eight or ten parts, and to contain a complete treatise on the structure of the articulates, illustrated in the fullest manner.³² Particular descriptions are to be given of insects whose habits affect human interests in any way, together with the metamorphoses, times of transformation, and methods of counteracting the labors of the noxious varieties. The typography and illustrations are excellent.

The preface to Professor Silliman's *Physics*³³ informs us that it was written in 1860—eight years ago. Having received no revision since that time, it makes no reference to some of the latest discoveries in physics. It is, however, a remarkably excellent work, excelled by none used for educational purposes, unless by the capital text-book of Ganot, or the translation of it by Atkinson. Indeed, Professor Silliman appears to have taken Ganot and Atkinson as his models, and in some places has followed them so closely as to exhibit singular coincidences of thought and language. Thus, under the head of *Optics*, we have:

GANOT AND ATKINSON.

SILLIMAN.

"Foucault's Apparatus for determining the velocity of Light. Notwithstanding the prodigious velocity of light, M. Foucault has succeeded in determining it, experimentally, by the aid of an ingenious apparatus based on the use of the rotating mirror which has been adopted by Mr. Wheatstone in measuring the velocity of electricity. In describing this apparatus we shall suppose the properties of mirrors and lenses to be already understood."

The description of the apparatus given by Ganot is very closely followed, even as to language, by Silliman. Other quite as decided coincidences might easily be cited were it worth while to do so. The arrangement, concise treatment of subjects, headings of paragraphs, wood-cuts, etc., are mainly Ganot's, and the whole getting up of the work re-

¹⁶ *General Problems of Shading and Shadows*. By S. Edward Warren, C.E. New York: John Wiley & Son. 1868.

¹⁷ *The Philosophy of Mathematics, with special reference to the Elements of Geometry and the Infinitesimal Method*. By Albert Taylor Bledsoe, A.M., LL.D., late Professor of Mathematics in the University of Virginia. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott & Co. 1868.

¹⁸ *Cornell's Primary Geography*. New Edition. New York: D. Appleton & Co. 1868.

¹⁹ *Cornell's Intermediate Geography*. New Edition. The same.

²⁰ *Guyot's Elementary Geography*. New York: Charles Scribner & Co. 1868.

²¹ *Guyot's Map-Drawing Cards*. The same.

²² *First Lessons in Geography for Young Children*. By S. Augustus Mitchell. Philadelphia: E. H. Butler & Co. 1868.

²³ *A Text-Book of Geology, Designed for Schools and Academies*. By James D. Dana, LL.D., Silliman Professor of Geology and Natural History in Yale College, etc. Illustrated by 375 wood-cuts. Philadelphia: Theodore Bliss & Co. 1868.

²⁴ *A New Primary Geography*. Illustrated by numerous maps and engravings. By D. M. Warren. Philadelphia: Cowperthwait & Co. 1868.

²⁵ *The Common-School Geography*. An elementary treatise on mathematical, physical, and political geography. The same.

²⁶ *Comparative Geography*. By Carl Ritter, late professor in the University of Berlin. Translated for the use of schools and colleges by William L. Gage. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott & Co. 1868.

²⁷ *Grolier's Guide for Teachers' Classes and Private Students*. By Sanford Tenney, A.M., Professor of Natural History in Vassar College. Illustrated with two hundred wood engravings. Philadelphia: E. H. Butler & Co. 1868.

²⁸ *A Pictorial Natural History*. By S. G. Goodrich. Philadelphia: E. H. Butler & Co. 1868.

²⁹ *Principles of Physics, or Natural Philosophy, designed for the use of Colleges and Schools*. By Benjamin Silliman, Jr., M.A., M.D., Professor of General and Applied Chemistry in Yale College. Second edition, revised and rewritten, with seven hundred and twenty-two illustrations. Philadelphia: Theodore Bliss & Co. 1868.

sembles his, except that it falls short in the matters of paper and typography. The book, however, is a good one; but although Professor Silliman mentions in the preface Ganot as one among others from whom he has derived assistance, we think he ought to have placed the name of the French writer on his title-page.

Roscoe's *Chemistry*³⁴ in the English edition was eagerly welcomed, when it first appeared last year, by instructors who desired a good exposition of the new philosophy in a compact form suitable for a class-book. The American edition is not inferior to the English except in absence of the plate of spectra; and the experience of those who have used the work has led to an increased demand for it. It contains some valuable chemical problems in addition to well-selected questions.

We append the full title the publishers have attached to Baron Liebig's *Chemistry*,³⁵ with the exception of the laudatory notices. How they can have the audacity and disingenuousness to commit such a fraud upon the public as to issue this volume as the *Complete Works* of Liebig exceeds our comprehension. The memoirs contained in this book have been gathered together not by the author, but by the Messrs. Peterson, and consist of the early editions of some of Liebig's treatises. They no more represent his present views than the first edition of Webster's *Dictionary* represented the views of its author when he wrote the last edition published before his death. It is a shameful thing for any publishing house to have practised this imposition on the reading community, and committed this great injustice to Baron von Liebig. To point out all the facts which support our charge would be a task wearisome in the extreme. As an example, however, we may call attention to the fact that the tract pretending to constitute the *Familiar Letters on Chemistry*, etc., embraces only the first edition of the second series, sixteen in number. The fourth edition, published several years since by Walton & Mallory of London, and edited by John Blyth, M.D., contains thirty-six lectures, the first and second series being combined. The Messrs. Peterson omit the first series altogether. Among the works of Liebig not contained in this "complete" edition are:

The Natural Laws of Husbandry. Edited by Dr. Blyth. London 1859.

Letters on Modern Agriculture. Edited by Dr. Blyth. 1859.

Hand book of Organic Analysis. Edited by Dr. Hofmann; and several smaller treatises.

Of course it is out of the question to review as recent works which the author wrote many years ago, and of which several improved editions have appeared. We only desire to say, in conclusion, that such conduct as that to which we have called attention will eventually meet with its own reward, and that we advise all who wish Liebig's works to refrain from purchasing the edition of the Messrs. Peterson, which, beside being a false one, is miserably printed on miserable paper.

Mr. Plympton's work on the blowpipe³⁶ was originally compiled by Prof. Sanders, of Ohio, from the treatises of Sheerer and Plattner. As an elementary text-book for the class-room, or to aid in pursuing the study without a teacher, it has many advantages over the two or three kindred English works. The beginner in the science is carefully instructed in the details of analysis in the dry way, and when he has mastered this hand-book he will be prepared to enter upon the study of the larger works. In this edition Prof. Plympton has added a short preface, an appendix—reciting some reactions not contained in the body of the work,—and a well-prepared index. It should be added that it is as yet the only work published in this country which affords elementary instruction on the subject, though one or more are understood to be in preparation.

The title of *Wash-Book for the use of Ladies' Boarding-Schools*³⁷ suggested hydraulics, and with that impression we opened and examined the work. All the pages are alike, which would be highly satisfactory to boarding-school misses if it were a treatise on hydraulics; but it is not. We hesitate to say what it is. Indeed, it requires the comprehensive grasp of the female mind when exercised on the subject of clothes to understand it. We may venture to say, however, that it is a thoroughly bewildering list of articles such as ladies send weekly to the laundress. It would be highly improper in us to mention a title of the articles included in the list. Against each item is a column marked "No. sent," wide enough for numbers of two figures, and by the side of it another column marked "No. rec'd," of a width to suggest at once a frightful outlay of currency, and a dereliction on the part of laundresses which we hope impossible. At the end of the list we find without surprise

³⁴ *Lessons in Elementary Chemistry, Inorganic and Organic*. By Henry Roscoe, B.A., F.R.S., Professor of Chemistry in Owen's College, Manchester, England. New York: Wm. Wood & Co. 1868.

³⁵ *Liebig's Complete Works on Chemistry*, comprising his *Agricultural Chemistry, or Organic Chemistry in its Application to Agriculture and Physiology; Animal Chemistry, or Organic Chemistry in its Application to Physiology and Pathology; Familiar Letters on Chemistry in its Relations to Commerce, Physiology, and Agriculture; The Origin of the Potato Disease, and Researches into the Motion of the Juices in the Animal Body, and Evaporation in Plants; Chemistry and Physics in relation to Physiology and Pathology, etc., etc.* By Julius Liebig, M.D., Ph.D., F.R.S., Professor of Chemistry in the University of Leipzig. Philadelphia: T. B. Peterson & Co. [No date.]

³⁶ *A System of Instruction in the Practical Use of the Blowpipe; being a graduated course of Analysis, for the use of Students and all those engaged in the Examination of Metallic Combinations*. Second Edition. With an appendix and a copious index. By G. W. Plympton, A.M., Professor of Physical Science of the Polytechnic Institute, Brooklyn, New York: D. Van Nostrand. 1868.

³⁷ *Wash-Book*. Designed for the use of ladies and ladies' boarding-schools in keeping a correct account with the laundress. Philadelphia: Howard Challen. 1868.

"clothes-bags." The necessity of putting up in bales is clearly a necessity of transportation. We hope we shall have done our duty in the matter when we say that the book is undoubtedly useful.

In two works, bound together, we have another part of the series of the *Cambridge Course of Physics*,^{38, 39} In the first the principles of mechanics are well exemplified, and in the second the phenomena of sound, light, and heat are illustrated by numerous apposite examples. Electricity, which the authors tell us is included in their text-book on chemistry, ought to have been embraced in the present volume, where it would certainly be more appropriately considered as one of the forces of nature. So far as progress is concerned, these two treatises are far in advance of any others used in our schools. The subjects of spectrum analysis, and sonorous and sensitive flames, as well as many others of recent investigation, are alluded to with sufficient fulness for elementary works. Upon the whole, notwithstanding the dryness we have mentioned in describing their previous books, Messrs. Rolfe and Gillet have performed their labors in an exceedingly creditable manner, and we have little doubt that ere long their text-books will come into very general use in educational establishments.

There is also an *Astronomy*⁴⁰ in the *Cambridge Course*, which is a very admirable specimen of the abilities of the authors. It is much fuller than Mr. Steele's little work, and is well adapted to those who want something more than a fourteen weeks' course. At the same time there is scarcely anything in it which young pupils cannot readily comprehend. The illustrations are really beautiful, and the collection of celestial maps at the end adds greatly to the value of the work. An appendix discusses with considerable thoroughness some of the more abstruse subjects touched upon in the body of the book. The name scarcely expresses the full scope of this manual. It is really an elementary treatise on astronomy without mathematics, and is very good reading for any one with a taste for science but neither the time nor the inclination to go deeply into its study. It is brought down to the very latest dates—another advantage in these days of stereotype plates and non-revision. We hope that Messrs. Rolfe and Gillet will, at least once in every three or four years, go carefully over their text-books and bring them down to the time of the latest corrections and discoveries. By so doing they will very effectually keep the start of those lazy writers who, when they have finished a school-book on a progressive science, imagine it is to last without revision as long as they remain in the world to draw an income from its sales.

Kiddle's new *Elementary Astronomy*⁴¹ is one of the recent additions to the list of scientific text-books. It is designed for high schools, but is not beyond the capacity of the higher classes in grammar schools. It gives the newly-corrected celestial distances, and a good account of the late progress of astronomical science. The illustrations are abundant and excellent, and give the work an attractive appearance not often presented by an American school-book. It is considered by the publishers as one of the Robinson series.

Mr. Steele's *Descriptive Astronomy*⁴² is a very excellent little book, destined, we think, to become a favorite one with teachers and pupils. Of course it is not possible to learn much about astronomy in fourteen weeks. Very few persons, however, require to go very deeply into the science, and this volume will amply suffice to give all others a correct view of the main principles without touching upon mathematical details. For common schools it is just what has long been needed, and when we look at it and think of our own dreary time with *Keith on the Globes*, we feel disposed to congratulate the juveniles whose lot it may be to study Mr. Steele's *Fourteen Weeks' Course*.

The style is clear, and the disquisitions generally sensible. We must, however, except from this last statement the remarks in response to the question, "Are the planets inhabited?" Mr. Steele says: "We can give no satisfactory answer. Many think that the only object God can possibly have in making any world is to form an abode for man. Our own earth was evidently fitted up, although perhaps not created, for this express purpose;" which gives an idea of the Creator very much like that which we would form of a man who, being single, had begun to build a house, and who, when the structure approached completion, had concluded to get married, and had consequently altered his architectural plans to some extent. Mr. Steele says that only a salamander could live in Mercury, a remark which might lead many to suppose that the fables in regard to this reptile being able to endure extreme heat are founded on fact. Mr. Steele ought also to know that the Jesuits are not—as he intimates on page 50—clashed among the ancients. These are faults which can readily be corrected, and we strongly advise Mr. Steele to go carefully over his excellent little book and clear it of all such blemishes.

Professor Loomis deserves the thanks of the scientific world for the labor performed in collecting the materials for

his new work on meteorology.⁴³ It is the only work on the subject that can be considered complete. The results of the labor of observers for the last few years have never been so well set forth for the general reader, and it is for such that the book is designed. Free from technicalities, treating briefly of the whole range of subjects belonging to this science, it gives to each subject sufficient space to explain the present condition of our knowledge, and the direction in which the labor of the philosophers is at present exerted. The work is illustrated with one hundred diagrams and contains thirty-six tables, which will prove of great value to observers. It is probably not quite time to introduce meteorology as a distinct branch in our schools, but it is high time that the general reader should be afforded some authority for refuting the numerous popular fallacies about meteorological changes, and should be able to show that there are more trustworthy data from which to reason than the memory of "the oldest inhabitant."

The first of Professor Macé's excellent physiological books⁴⁴ needs no further description at our hands, since we have before dwelt upon it, both when the same translation was published some months since by another firm, and when Messrs. Leybold & Holt issued it in the original as one of their series of French reading-books. It is only necessary, therefore, to say of it now that the Messrs. Harper have added it to their collection of this admirable author's works, with a promise to keep us supplied with prospective additions to their number. For *The Servants of the Stomach*,⁴⁵ the significance of its title will be partly evident to all who have made their way to it through its forerunner, the *Mouthful of Bread*, and its descriptions of the organs of nutrition. How much of the system may be approached from the same starting point would, however, scarcely be realized without the suggestions of the author's introductory chapter, wherein the organs of relation are introduced in this account of a wolf's procedure when his stomach craves attention:

"The substances which are to form his repast are not all there within his reach, quite ready for his appetite. They ramble off in the brushwood, under the skin of a goat or a deer, and it is no easy affair for him to put their useful into relation to them. Now! see how the organs all work together in order to accomplish this difficult task. Look how many must engage in the chase; the eyes on the watch, the ear erect, the nose to windward—three servants of his stomach who are on the look-out for him, and who report faithfully if they see, hear, or smell anything suitable. The prey thus tracked out by them, the next step is to obtain possession of it. For this purpose the bones, the muscles, and the legs of the animal are called into action, fresh servants put suddenly in motion by a mysterious power which shows itself as by enchantment on the report of the scouts, and which has its seat in certain organs, the names of which you know quite well. There are the nerves, which must also be ranked among our band of servants, for without them the legs could no more move than two pieces of wood. But this is not all. The power which the legs obey is a blind power requiring to be directed, and the indications of the eye, ear, and nose could not alone suffice for this, on account of the distance of the game and its own natural cunning, if there were not something more. What can it be? I should find it very difficult to tell you exactly what; at any rate, there is certainly a something which estimates the value of their indications, compares them with former indications of the same nature given in similar circumstances, decides what is to be done, and gives its orders accordingly. This something acts by means of an organ, so far as we can judge, and this organ is also a servant of the stomach. I am very sorry for the brain, for he it is, if this servitude should cause him to descend from the first rank. But if wolves could speak, they would tell us that with them the stomach is of more importance than the brain, and that the latter is only the principal, the head one, if you like, of all the other servants of the former. The whole of this army of servants sometimes work for hours before the teeth can take their turn, and what to you is the beginning of the task is the end of it to the wolf."

"Now you can at a glance comprehend the full extent of the study we propose to undertake."

In the most natural way then follows, of course, the account of the whole physical apparatus of which "the bones form the framework, and the muscles the cordage,"—the skeleton, the muscular and nervous systems, the senses, animal electricity, and other studies in physiology which might seem—and in hands less skilful and patient than our author's would be—beyond the comprehension of a child. It is but a few weeks since we had to express our surprise at his success in divesting arithmetic of its horrors and making it a decidedly pleasant pursuit. It is almost superfluous to say that, having a subject interesting in itself, where his pupils can verify almost every new discovery by their own persons, M. Macé makes the study as charming as it is instructive. Children and grown folk alike will find, before they reach the end, that they have not only got a pretty intimate knowledge of their own frames, but that ever and anon they have been started up side tracks which, as occasion serves, they will be anxious to follow up into different districts in the domain of physics. Writing in the form of letters to a young friend, the author has kept his work free from any attributes of the school-book. His French horr at the notion of being dull is at times quite amusing, and every few pages we have apologies for necessary explanations that tax the attention, together with promises that the next step shall be more amusing, and bring the reward of patience. One cannot help seeing, for instance, the French shrug and outturn palms as, at the close of the dissertation on the centre of gravity which introduces the chapters on *Attitudes* and *Movements*, he reads: "You have perhaps found this long explanation a little wearisome, but what can I do? It is the

³⁸ *A Hand-book of Natural Philosophy; and Elements of Sound, Light, and Heat*. By W. J. Rolfe and J. A. Gillet, Teachers in the High School, Cambridge, Mass. Boston: Woolworth & Ainsworth. 1868.

³⁹ *Hand-book of the Stars, for School and Home Use*. By W. J. Rolfe and J. A. Gillet. Boston: Crosby & Ainsworth. 1868.

⁴⁰ *A New Manual of Elementary Astronomy*. By Henry Kiddle, A.M. New York: Wilson, Phinney, Blakeman, & Co. 1868.

⁴¹ *A Fourteen Weeks' Course in Descriptive Astronomy*. By J. Dorman Steele, M.A., Principal of Elmira Free Academy. New York: A. S. Barnes & Co. 1868.

⁴² *A Treatise on Meteorology, with a Collection of Meteorological Tables*. By Elias Loomis, LL.D. New York: Harper & Brothers. 1868.

⁴³ *The History of a Mouthful of Bread: and its Effect on the Organization of Men and Animals*. By Jean Macé. Translated from the eighth French edition by Mrs. Alfred Gatty. First American edition, reprinted from the above, carefully revised and compared with the seventh French edition. The same.

⁴⁴ *The Servants of the Stomach*. By the same. Reprinted from the London translation, revised and corrected. The same.

office of this naughty centre of gravity to fatigue people." In fact, nothing but his familiarity with children and evident love for them prevents his descending into puerility in the course of some of these reassuring apologies. At times it seems not unlikely that he may impart to his younger readers an immoderate fervor in the pursuit of science—as when, talking of the gelatinous character of the bones in infancy, he says, "Place your hand gently upon the top of the head of a very young child as it lies in its nurse's arms; you will feel the substance yield under the pressure of your finger, as if the bony arch of the skull was not complete;" or when, after describing the work of the blood-vessels in repairing an injury, he observes, "If you have the curiosity to examine further, by cutting your finger again in the old place, you would satisfy yourself that no trace of all this repair remains inside;" or, yet again, when he exemplifies the centre of gravity with this instruction: "Try to go up stairs while holding yourself very upright; your knee will bitterly complain before you have reached the first story; or, rather, be prudent—take my word for it—and do not try. The least accident which would retard the centre of gravity, after losing its support below, would make you fall backward, and your mother would never forgive me." One can easily imagine with what dismay mothers would come upon recommendations of this sort—especially the first we quoted,—and how one in whom love of her offspring predominated over that of science might pronounce the book dangerous and put it on the household *index expurgatorius*. Mothers, however, may find compensation. Such is the support of the claim that "there is a decided advantage in knowing how you are made," by showing the danger of dislocating the neck (the atlas) in turning heels-over-head and other boyish amusements, wherefore our author "would have these things taught in every village school." Nothing about the books, perhaps, is more thoroughly French—if we except something of levity in the use of the Creator's name, for whose retention the translator is more to blame than the author, who is thoroughly reverent, only a Frenchman—than the political allusions—suggestions of the author's editorial career—which, quite of their own accord, present themselves every now and then in the most unlooked-for places. Thus, the compressibility of the cartilages between the vertebrae leads to the story of a conscript who walked all night to reduce his stature by the half-inch or so that would insure his rejection at the examination next day, and of a gigantic whale-skeleton (150 feet long) in which a professor discovered a plug of cork "between each vertebra" (translator, again), and this to the application, "I recommend you, in studying history, to call to mind, from time to time, this story of the skeleton of the whale. You will read of characters who appear unnaturally large, but wait, before judging, to ascertain that nothing has been inserted between their vertebrae." In like manner the propensity of yielding to muscular fatigue occasions the suggestion, *à propos* of going to bed, "Human weakness has rights which it would be imprudent not to recognize, and it would never do for you to feel it a humiliation to be obliged to rest yourself. Even nations must rest sometimes." We have perhaps dwelt upon features of the book which least show its excellencies. If so, we must content ourselves with recording our conviction that, in this branch of juvenile literature, M. Macé is as supreme as Hans Christian Andersen is as a story-teller. As skilfully graded introductions to the study of natural history, no other series of works, whether for children or adults, are comparable to them. And it is with great satisfaction that we find the author express a hope that he may be "able some day to find time to write you a book on astronomy," and with still more that we observe that a translation of his *History of the Senses and Thought* is now in the press.

It is too late in the day to review the works of Reid⁴⁴ and Stewart⁴⁵ unless as the basis of an extensive article on intellectual and moral philosophy. The adaptations to collegiate use made by Dr. Walker have also been long enough before the public for their merits to be thoroughly tested, and the fact that they have passed through ten editions each is evidence that they have met with favor. Few writers on philosophy have exercised so great an influence over mankind as Reid and Stewart, and though there are other systems more in advance than theirs, it will be long before they lose their pre-eminence with English-speaking people. There are no text-books on philosophy in use in our schools which can pretend to occupy a position as high as that which the works of the authors hold; and yet it is very evident that few students, even in our higher colleges, give much attention to the subjects of which they treat. Perhaps the fault lies more with the teachers than the scholars. Be this as it may, it is very certain that young men take their degrees without one in ten understanding the first principles of the laws of thought or the science of morals; and it is equally certain that such ignorance must constitute a serious bar to the progress of literature and society.

⁴⁴ *Essays on the Intellectual Powers of Man.* By Thomas Reid, D.D., F.R.S.E. Abridged, with notes and illustrations from Sir William Hamilton and others. Edited by James Walker, D.D., Professor of Intellectual and Moral Philosophy in Harvard College. Tenth Edition. Philadelphia: E. H. Butler & Co. 1864.

⁴⁵ *The Philosophy of the Active and Moral Powers of Man.* By Dugald Stewart, F.R.S.S., London and Edinburgh. Revised, with omissions and additions, by James Walker, D.D., Professor of Intellectual and Moral Philosophy in Harvard College. Tenth Edition. The same.

Dr. Malcom's edition of *Butler's Analogy*⁴⁶ ought by this time to be so well known as to stand little more in need of commendation than Butler's great work itself. The editor's labors were no sinecure, being, briefly, these: The emendations of the text, by the collation of the best editions; the modernizing of the text in respect of some peculiarities of punctuation and affectations of phrase, which conformed with the fashion of the author's time, but obscures his meaning; a new paragraphing, for the same purpose; the material amplification of the *conspicuum*, until it contains a thorough abstract of the argument; the addition of numerous notes, by way of elucidation and suggestion, as well as for the direction of further research; and the preparation of a very full index, which greatly facilitates reference. That Dr. Malcom has done his work well we are glad to add our testimony to the practical one of the number of editions it has received.

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CROSBY & AINSWORTH, Boston.—*Hand-book of the Stars.* For school and home use. By W. J. Rolfe and J. A. Gillett. Pp. vi., 224. Plates xvii. 1868.

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A Written Arithmetic. For Common and Higher Schools. By G. A. Walton. Pp. vii., 348.

A Key to Walton's Table. Parts I and II. By the same. Pp. 52.

52.—Walton's Primary Arithmetic. On the plan of Object Lessons. By the same. Pp. 66.

An Intellectual Arithmetic. With an introduction to written Arithmetic. By the same. Pp. 176.

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HURD & HOUGHTON, New York.—*Reminiscences of European Travels.* By Andrew P. Peabody. Pp. iv., 316. 1868.

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CLARK & MAYNARD, New York.—*Sacred Poems.* By N. P. Willis. With illustrations. Pp. xiv., 126. 1868.

JOHN MURPHY, Baltimore.—*The First Class Book of History.* With questions. By M. J. Kerney, A.M. Pp. viii., 335. 1868.

A Compendium of Ancient and Modern History. With questions. From the Creation to the year 1867. By the same. Pp. 431. 1867.

Ancient History. From the Dispersion of the Sons of Noe to the Battle of Actium. With questions. By Peter Frede, D.D. Pp. 504. 36. 1867.

Modern History. From the Coming of Christ to the year of our Lord 1867. By the same. Pp. x., 566. 38. 1867.

JOHN WILEY & SONS, New York; SAMUEL BAGSTER & SONS, London.—*Hebrew and Greek Lexicon.* Containing all the Hebrew and Chaldee Words in the Old Testament Scriptures. With their meanings in English. Pp. vii., 287. 1868.

CHARLES SCRIBNER & CO., New York.—*Felter's First Lessons in Numbers.* Illustrated. By S. A. Felter, A.M. Pp. 107.

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Guyot's Map Drawing Cards. Illustrated by Diagrams.

HARPER & BROTHERS, New York.—*The Student's Scripture History. The New Testament History.* Edited by William Smith, LL.D. Pp. xii., 780. 1868.

(Advance sheets.) A Treatise on Algebra. By Elias Loomis, LL.D. Pp. viii., 384. 1868.

(Advance sheets.) A Treatise on Physiology and Hygiene. By H. Dalton, M.D. Pp. xvi., 399. 1868.

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J. S. REDFIELD, New York.—*Modern Women, and What is Said of Them.* A reprint of a series of articles in *The Saturday Review.* Pp. xii., 371. 1868.

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GEORGE ROUTLEDGE & SONS, New York.—*Lilliput Levee.* Poems of Childhood, Chid-fancy, and Chidlike Moods. Pp. viii., 213. 1868.

P. O'SHEA, New York.—*Logia for Young Ladies.* Translated from the French of Victor Doublet. Pp. 148. 1868.

W.M. WOOD & CO., New York.—*Lessons in Elementary Chemistry. Inorganic and Organic.* By Henry E. Roscoe, B.A., F.R.S. Pp. viii., 383. 1868.

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Ahn's New Practical and Easy Method of Learning the German Language. With pronunciation, numerous corrections, etc. By H. Oehlslager. Pp. iv., 164. 76. 1868.

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J. B. LIPPINCOTT & CO., Philadelphia.—*The Globe Edition: The Disowned.* By Sir E. Bulwer Lytton, Bart. Pp. 346, 351. 1868.

G. P. PUTNAM & SON, New York.—*Drawing Without a Master. The Cavé Method for Learning to Draw from Memory.* By Madame Marie Elisabeth Cavé. Translated from the Fourth Paris Edition. Pp. 134. 1868.

AMERICAN PUBLISHING COMPANY, Hartford.—*A Personal History of Ulysses S. Grant.* Illustrated. By Albert D. Richardson. Pp. xiv., 560. 1868.

HARPER & BROTHERS, New York.—*Harper's School and Family Slate Cards.* First Series.

LEVPOLETT & HOLT, New York.—*Grammaire Française à l'usage des Anglais.* Par Eugène Borel. Revised by Edward B. Coe. Pp. xvi., 317, 116. 1868.

A Manual of Mythology. By the Rev. Geo. W. Cox, M.A. Pp. 300. 1868.

LITTLE, BROWN, & CO., Boston; DODD & CO., New York.—*A Treatise on the Law of Highways.* By Joseph K. Angell and Thomas Durfee. Second Edition. With notes and references to late cases by George F. Cope. Pp. xxxvi., 579. 1868.

Criminal Abortion: Its Nature, its Evidence, and its Law. By Horatio R. Storer, M.D., LL.B., and Franklin Fiske Heard. Pp. viii., 215. 1868.

PAMPHLETS.

D. APPLETON & CO., New York.—*Waverley Novels: The Pirate.* By Sir Walter Scott, Bart. Pp. 191.

T. B. PETERSON & BROS., Philadelphia.—*The Count of Moret; or, Richelieu and his Rivals.* By Alexander Dumas. Pp. 160.

E. STEIGER, New York.—*Steiger's Haus Bibliothek.* B. 4-15.

AMERICAN NEWS CO., New York.—*The Gen of the Lakes: A Novel.* By Mrs. Sarah A. Wright. Pp. vi., 60. 1868.

AMERICAN LITERARY BUREAU, New York.—*The Temple of Isis; or, Passages from the Papers of a Mystic.* Pp. 64. 1868.

We have received the Catalogue of a Private Library of English and American Standard Books, for sale by A. Williams & Co., Boston. Circular of the State Normal and Training School at Brockport, N. Y. 1868-9. The Sabbath: An Appeal to the Israelites of New York. The Prospectus of the Philadelphia School of Design for Women.

We have also received current numbers of *The Workshop*; *Appleton's Railway Guide*; *The American Educational Monthly*; *The Excelsior Monthly*; *The New York Medical Journal*; *The London Quarterly Review* (reprint); *Good News*; *The Christian Examiner*; *New York: Merry's Museum*; *The Congregational Review*; *The Radical*; *Boston: The Philadelphia Photographer*; *The Medical and Surgical Reporter*; *Philadelphia*; *The American Naturalist*; *Salem*; *The Overland Monthly*; *San Francisco*; *The Ladies' Repository*; *Cincinnati*.

TABLE-TALK.

FINE ARTS departments in connection with our colleges are among the recent steps toward something that may without absurdity be called universities. Two colleges within a short time have taken measures to add such departments to their attractions. In one, the University of Michigan, provision was originally made for a professorship of Fine Arts and a series of art lectures; but from what we can gather it would seem that the chair has been filled by a person whose attainments are entirely inadequate to his position—so that there, for some time at least, no marked results are to be anticipated. At Yale there can scarcely be any mistake of this sort, yet its new School of Fine Arts is for the present unavailable for purposes of instruction because of the lack of means to establish an art professorship or any other than gratuitous and fortuitous lectures. As far, however, as Yale has gone all has been done solidly, and results no doubt will come by and by. Of the very beautiful building provided by the liberality of the late Mr. Street we have several times spoken; but of the valuable Jarves Collection which it contains we have made little mention, although its elaborate catalogue* has been by us for many weeks. Our silence has been due partly to our hope of being able to examine the catalogue and the collection together, but more to the concurrent opinion that reached us from several artists, who had seen the latter, that it was a poor affair and that the college could do much better with its money than by buying it. Partially and in a certain sense, no doubt, there is justice in hostile criticism of the paintings. As works of art simply—as objects, that is, which are calculated to please the eye of people who like to look at pretty pictures—we fancy, though we have not seen it, that the Jarves Collection is singularly unattractive. But it happens that its claim does not rest upon the merit of its paintings as works of art, or indeed upon any of their merits individually, but on their collective historical and educational value to the art student. Mr. Sturgis's admirable catalogue—which deserves the highest praise for its art-learning, its discrimination and candor, and the wide research as well as the taste it displays—is very frank in the admission of defects which would offend the dilettante connoisseur or unlearned artist. The collection, he says, "shares with all other picture-galleries the disadvantage that it has only small pictures to represent painters whose full strength was called forth only for large and immovable ones;" and his comments upon the individual specimens make no concealment of their lack of beauty. That has little to do with their worth, as is evident enough from the consideration of the plan on which the collection was gathered. This, as Mr. Jarves tells us in the preface to his catalogue of 1860, grew from his historical and critical researches for the preparation of his *Art Studies*. Conceiving the idea of "a gallery or museum of olden art for America, based upon a chronological or historical sequence of paintings, arranged according to their motives and technical progress," he bestirred himself to get together such a series. "Familiar with Italian life," "in constant intercourse with many of the best European connoisseurs," and assisted by accomplished artists—"after several years of search in the highways and byways of Europe," he astonished European and American art-critics by the success with which he completed his "characteristic specimens of the schools and artists that illustrate Italian painting, in a series which should, at a glance, give a correct view of its progress from A.D. 1000 to 1600—six centuries, embracing its rise, climax, and decadence." Mr. Sturgis is supported by the best authorities here and abroad when he says that "it would be very difficult now, and it will not be less difficult at any future time, to form another collection of a hundred and twenty pictures which should at all approach this one in value." In fact, this was promptly recognized, and only Mr. Jarves's determination that his labors should contribute to the art-culture of his native country prevented the purchase of his gallery in England and elsewhere,—for in the completeness of its historical sequence few collections, even in the European capitals, can compare with it. Yale is remarkably fortunate in having such a starting point for its art school, and its pu-

* Manual of the Jarves Collection of Early Italian Pictures, deposited in the Galleries of the Yale School of Fine Arts. Being a catalogue with descriptions of the pictures contained in that collection, with biographical notices of artists and an introductory essay, the whole forming a brief guide to the study of early Christian Art. By Russell Sturgis, Jr. New Haven: Yale College. 1868.

pils hardly less so in having so skilful a guide in their studies as Mr. Sturgis.

MAIMONIDES COLLEGE, the new Hebrew institution in Philadelphia, does not seem to have won the favor among American Jews that such an undertaking ought to command. Somehow the controversies that agitate the Hebrew body, answering, we suppose, to the High and Low Church difficulties, seem to involve this college, and we find *The Jewish Messenger* constantly rebuking its co-religionists for their apathy and illiberality toward it, and repelling assaults apparently by the progressive Jews, and directed by *The Israelite*, of Cincinnati—that is, by Dr. J. M. Wise, its editor. The second collegiate year of the institution commences this week, and it seems that, so far as its tuition and internal management go, everything has been reassuring. The scholarship of its instructors and the attainments of its pupils are highly spoken of, and for immediate purposes its funds are ample. At the same time *The Messenger* reminds the Jews that their number throughout the country is two-thirds that of the Episcopalians, that in number and costliness the synagogues of the principal cities rival the churches of any one denomination, and it calls for corresponding liberality toward "the first successful effort to localize higher Hebrew studies," noting that, "while the liberality of Christians of whatever denomination is divided among ten or twenty or fifty seminaries and colleges, we have only one to sustain and dignify and place in its proper attitude;" and asking, somewhat indignantly, "When do we hear of an Israelite in this country giving or devising a liberal donation to a school or college?" The wants it sets forth as easy for American Israelites to supply are, "firstly, students—not alone those who contemplate entering the ministry, but Jewish lads whom their parents desire to be instructed in Hebrew learning and in Jewish life; secondly, scholarships for students who lack the means to support themselves. Every congregation and Bnai Berith and other Jewish lodge in the country should subscribe sufficient to establish at least a single scholarship, and to fill it by appointing an intelligent boy, whose parents are not able to pay for his education. Simple scholarships for tuition are one hundred dollars a year, for tuition and maintenance \$350; thirdly, funds for the endowment of professorships and the augmentation of the library."

THE MERCANTILE LIBRARY ASSOCIATION of New York last week reopened its rooms, which had been materially enlarged and thoroughly renovated during the usual summer intermission; and this week are recommenced its evening classes in English and modern languages, phonography, music, drawing, gymnastics, etc., this department also having been thoroughly reorganized and extended. The first sixteen annual reports of the association—1821-'38—have recently been republished, and it is interesting, by comparing them with each other and with the last report, the forty-seventh, to note the growth and progress. The library, for instance, opened with about 700 books, most of them donations; and "a gradual and satisfactory increase of members" had brought their number up to 175 at the time of the first annual report. In the sixteenth year the volumes numbered 1,845 and the members 3,076, the receipts from all sources being \$5,222. By the new report last year's net increase of books—deducting duplicates from the aggregate—was 7,463, making the whole number 95,673, which during the winter will doubtless exceed 100,000, while there are, beside, over 400 quarterly, monthly, and weekly periodicals regularly received at the reading-room, where there are more than 3,000 books of reference; its active membership has risen to 10,718—a gain of more than 6,600 since 1862; and its annual income has become \$25,071, allowing the prompt addition to the library of all desirable American and European publications. The least satisfactory statement—regarded as an evidence of the popular taste—is that of the 9,351 new volumes added during the year 4,649 were works of fiction. The number of books drawn from the library during the same period was 203,894. At the conclusion of their report the directors earnestly recommend the protection of their valuable collection by removing it from the building it has now outgrown to a more beautiful structure which shall be fire-proof.

DR. LEONARD WOODS's trip to Europe to make some historical investigations for the Maine Historical Society—the facts relating to the Popham colony, the Gorges and Mason settlements—was mentioned in these columns more than a year ago. Within a fortnight he has returned, and a correspondent of *The Boston Advertiser* details his success in a larger and less explored field than he originally contemplated—that of the early discoveries on the northeast coast from the time of the Northmen, or rather the cartography connected with those discoveries, to which end he searched the historical and state archives of Great Britain, France, and Germany, regretting his inability to pursue his investigations in the collections at Rome. He has brought back memoranda of seventy-five maps made during the first half-century of American discovery—many of them in manuscript, and nearly all inaccessible to American historical students—for which he was largely indebted to Mr. J. G. Kohl, librarian of the city of Berlin, who is known in this country as the person most skilled in early American cartography, and who was once employed by our government in this work, but from want of an appropriation by Congress his labors have not been made available. The society, however, authorized Dr. Woods to employ Mr. Kohl to prepare reduced copies of twenty-five of the more important of these early

maps, with proper explications, for the first volume of the new documentary collections of the society. Before Dr. Woods left Germany, Mr. Kohl had nearly completed the work, and the volume containing it will be issued at an early day. His principal discovery—one which an enthusiast might consider of itself an ample compensation for the trip—was an unpublished MS. of Hackluyt's, which he found in the collection, little examined, of Sir Thomas Phillips, at Cheltenham. This is referred to in the printed *Calendar of State Papers, Domestic Series, Elizabeth, 1581-1590*, edited by Robert Lemon, p. 377, under the date 1586, in the following terms:

"Copy, probably in the hands of James Lancaster, the navigator, of the twenty heads of chapters contained in the book of Sir Walter Raleigh's voyage to the West Indies, which is offered for the rareness of the matter, and for that few or none (her majesty's excepted) hath seen the same. The bearer and author, Mr. Hackluyt, will present the book to the secretary" (Sir Francis Walsingham).

Hitherto it has been regarded as lost, not appearing, of course, in Hackluyt's works. Having clearly identified it, Dr. Woods secured the owner's permission to have it copied, which has been done with exactness, portions of it in fac-simile. The following is a transcript of the title-page:

"A particuler discourse concerning the greate necessarie and manifold commodityes that are like to growe to this Realme of Englande by the Westerne discoveries lately attempted, written in the yere 1584 by Richard Hackluyt of Oxford at the requeste and direction of the right worshipfull Mr. Walter Raylhy nowe knight before the comynghe home of his Twoe Barkes, and is devide into XXI ti chapters, the Titles wherof followe in the next leafe."

MR. J. H. MOWER has elaborated a discovery which, if the description given by *The New York Herald* is to be relied upon, will revolutionize trans-oceanic, and generally all subaqueous, telegraphy. For some years he had been engrossed in electrical experiments, when the Atlantic cable gave a special direction to his investigations into generating and conducting substances, the decomposition of water, the development of the electrical machine, etc., etc. By this summer his arrangements had been so far perfected that, a few weeks ago, he was able to demonstrate to himself and his coadjutor the feasibility of his project, on a scale approximate to that which it is designed to assume. Selecting the greatest clear distance on an east and west line in Lake Ontario—from a point near Toronto, Canada West, to one on the coast of Oswego County, New York—at his first attempt he succeeded in transmitting his message, without a wire, from the submerged machine at one end of the route to that at the other. The messages and replies were continued for two hours, the average time of transmission for the 138 miles being a little less than three-eighths of a second. The upshot of the discovery—on what principle Mr. Mower is not yet prepared to disclose—is, that electric currents can be transmitted through water, salt or fresh, without deviation vertically, or from the parallel of latitude. The difficulty from the unequal level of the tidal waves in the two hemispheres will be obviated, it is claimed, by submerging the apparatus at sufficient depth. The inventor, we are told, is preparing to go to Europe to secure there the patent rights for which the caveats have been filed here. At the inconsiderable cost of \$10,000 he expects within three months to establish telegraphic communication between Montauk Point, the eastern extremity of Long Island, and Spain, the eastern end of the line striking the coast of Portugal at a point near Oporto. The statement of the discovery is enough to take away one's breath; but, with the history of the telegraph before us, we no more venture to deny than we do to affirm its possibility.

THE AMERICAN SOCIAL SCIENCE ASSOCIATION announces the holding of its annual session in Boston, next month, when the president, Prof. William B. Rogers, will deliver the annual address, and there will be four other addresses—on Education, by Mr. J. D. Philbrick; on Health, by Dr. Edward Jarvis; on Economy, by Prof. Arthur L. Perry; and on Jurisprudence, by Dr. Emory Washburn. The little tract of *Occasional Papers*, in which these announcements are made, contains some interesting information concerning the education of deaf-mutes and of the blind, penal legislation, poor-relief, and other topics, to some of which we shall take occasion to return.

A NEW Western association of similar character is mentioned in this tract as in process of formation, and we presume the allusion is to a movement of which we are advised by a prospectus, prepared by Mr. Fred. H. Wines, and a call for a meeting to be held in Chicago, on the 10th of November, for the organization of a society to collect and disseminate information concerning the organization of a society in the Mississippi valley. The call is well signed, and valuable papers are promised for the initiatory meeting.

A PARAGRAPH of ours has given circulation to the statement that the book called *Three Wives* is by Miss Annie Thomas, whereas it is by the author of *Margaret and her Bridesmaids*, whoever that may be. "The Round Table," says a note we have received from Messrs. Routledge & Sons, "was right enough in so stating at first, for it happened curiously enough that while we were advertising and preparing to publish, in *The Broadway*, a novel by Annie

Thomas with that title (*Three Wives*), Hurst & Blackett also had a three-volume novel by the author of *Margaret and her Bridesmaids* under precisely the same title; we have therefore changed the title of Annie Thomas's to *False Colors*."

MESSRS. J. B. LIPPINCOTT & Co. announce as nearly ready: *Short Stories for Spare Moments*, selected from *Lippincott's Magazine*; *Godolphin*, a volume of the Globe Edition of Bulwer; an abridged edition of *Elements of Art Criticism*, designed as a text-book for schools and colleges and as a hand-book for amateurs and artists, by G. W. Samson, D.D., President of Columbian College, Washington, D. C.; *The History of Art*, by Professor Wilhelm Lubke, translated by F. E. Bunnett; *Art and Song*, illustrated by *Poets and Painters*, with steel engravings from drawings by D. Roberts, R.A., J. M. W. Turner, R.A., W. Collins, R.A., F. Goodall, R.A., and others. The following also are in the press of the same house: *Lucretia, or the Children of Night*, another of the Globe Edition of Bulwer; *The Unconscious Truth of the Four Gospels*, by the Rev. W. H. Furness, D.D.; *A Few Friends, and How they Enjoyed Themselves*, by M. E. Dodge.

MESSRS. TICKNOR & FIELDS, beside books of which we have previously spoken, will publish the following during the autumn: In September, *What Answer? A Story of To-Day*, by Anna E. Dickinson; *Smoking and Drinking*, by James Parton; *If, Yes, and Perhaps*, a new volume of stories, by Edward Everett Hale; *Plain Thoughts on the Art of Living*, by Washington Gladden. In October will appear: *The New England Tragedies*, by Henry W. Longfellow—an entirely new poetical work; *Passages from the American Note-Books of Nathaniel Hawthorne*; *Poems*, by the late Charles Graham Halpine (Miles O'Reilly); and the following juvenile books: *The Flower and the Star, and other Stories*, by W. J. Linton, with illustrations drawn and engraved by the author; *The King's Lily and Rosebud*, by Mrs. Anna M. Diaz, a fairy tale, illustrated with 16 pictures by W. L. Sheppard; and *Cast Away in the Cold: An Old Man's Story of a Young Man's Adventures*, by Dr. Isaac I. Hayes. For November are promised a revised edition of *The Poetry of Compliment and Courtship*; *The Red Line Whittier*, uniform with the *Red Line Tennyson*, and the only complete edition of Whittier with illustrations ever published; limited edition of Longfellow's *Hyperion*, illustrated with photographs of the Rhine, Switzerland and the Tyrol, bound only in antique morocco; *The Gates Ajar*, by Elizabeth Stuart Phelps; *On the Wing*, a book for young sportsmen; *Poems*, by Lucy Larcom; *Saul*, a dramatic poem, by Charles Heavyside; *Old Town Folks*, by Harriet Beecher Stowe; a new narrative poem, by Robert Browning; *The Diary and Correspondence of Henry Crabb Robinson*; and a new volume of poems, by James Russell Lowell.

MR. S. S. PACKARD—who has achieved a very satisfactory sort of "sensation" for himself and his *Monthly* by its articles on *The Wickedest Man in New York*, not the least extraordinary of whose effects have been the conversion of the "Wickedest Man" and the transformation of his dance-house into a Magdalen asylum and place for prayer-meetings—has given a valuable hint to the friends of the woman's rights movement. This was the presentation to Miss Anthony—one of the irrepressible managers of *The Revolution*—of six scholarships of \$100 each, to entitle the young women to whom they may be given to a full course in any of the commercial colleges with which Mr. Packard is connected. Already, we understand, several girls have thus been enabled to secure situations as book-keepers or accountants.

THE ENGLISH INTERNATIONAL EDUCATION SOCIETY's labors appear to have already been crowned with sufficient success to encourage the brightest hopes for the future. On the 1st of May, 1866, it opened a temporary college at Spring Grove, near Richmond, with only seven students. Within a year this number rose to thirty, which was all the place could accommodate. In the meantime a piece of ground, lying in a healthy location, was secured near by, and a large, handsome building, in the style of the thirteenth century, was commenced on it. Nothing was neglected that could conduce to the welfare and comfort of professors and pupils. All the latest improvements were introduced into this structure, and with the artistic decorations, which exert such a decided influence in forming the aesthetic tastes of the young, great care was taken. The first wing, when completed, was found capable of accommodating eighty students. The main portion of the building was dedicated with great solemnity, and opened by the Prince of Wales on the 10th of July, 1867, in the presence of a large scientific and fashionable audience. The interest which the royal family and the higher classes of society appeared to take in the enterprise must have been very gratifying to its promoters. In the speeches made on the occasion great stress was laid on the circumstance that this international school was one of the results of the international exhibition, and therefore a legacy of Prince Albert.

THE LONDON COLLEGE is under the management of Dr. Leonard Schmitz, a distinguished German educationist, to whom it mainly owes its reputation. He not only founded the London institution but, impressed with the importance of the system, he directed his attention at the same time to the establishment of two sister colleges in Germany and France. In both countries he has succeeded, and these

institutions, which are affiliated under his direction with the London College, aim therefore at the same results. The German branch, at Godesberg, near Berne, is under the charge of Dr. Baskerville, well known by his English grammar for Germans, and his translations of German poetry (*The Poetry of Germany*, etc., Leipzig, 1854). Though by birth an Englishman, he has passed nearly all his life in Germany, and is therefore especially fitted to superintend a college of this character. The French branch is at Chatou, near Paris, under the charge of M. P. Barrere. A fourth branch either has already, or soon will be, established in Italy.

SUCH are the external progress and results of the attempt to revolutionize education. The directors of the International Education Society congratulate the shareholders in their annual report of August 14, 1867, no less warmly upon the internal. "The growing favor which the plans of the society meet," says the report, "shows of itself the state of public opinion, and many signs indicate that the demand of the age for a radical change in our private, as well as in our public schools and universities, is becoming more general." In other words, it looks as if the continental, or rather the German, system promised to supersede and do away with the one-sidedness and dryness of the English system, now so far behind the times. The jejune and antiquated method by which hitherto the ancient languages were cultivated, almost to the exclusion of all other knowledge, while the study of mathematics ended with Euclid, is to be abandoned, and the natural sciences with the modern languages will obtain more consideration. The theological bias, which is a peculiar feature in all English schools, must thus be gradually lost; at any rate, it is a great step in advance for England that the management of the international college should have been entrusted to non-clerical hands at all. These schools are, in a religious point of view, strictly non-sectarian; no particular denomination is favored, and the pupil has full liberty of conscience. Under such circumstances the influence exerted by this method can only prove beneficial to the English educational system. Yet, if it is to prevail permanently in the native schools, the same success must attend the experiment in other countries which seems to have attended it in the establishment of the London College. On this point we have, unfortunately, not sufficient evidence before us at present, and it would seem that the international plan has hitherto not met with quite the appreciation one might have expected in Germany and France. This may partly be due to the fact that these nations have not yet felt so sensibly its want as England has done, and partly because of the expense, which is more in accordance with British than continental notions. There are not many German or French families who can afford to spend in the education of a son, exclusive of travelling expenses, the yearly sum of £80, which is the charge of the London College and its branches abroad. Contrasted with the cost of the English universities this fee is moderate, but it is different when compared with the cost of the German or French schools. The international system will therefore for some time to come take far more young men to the Continent than it brings to England; but this difficulty will be eventually adjusted, and a truly cosmopolitan educational system prevail in all civilized lands.

ENGLISH PRIMARY INSTRUCTION cannot be regarded as in a very good state. Mr. John Stuart Mill says of it: "As to quantity, it is and will be for a long while insufficient; and as to quality, although the tendency is toward improvement, it is never good except by accident, and is generally so bad as to be instruction only in name." This tendency toward improvement, it is noted in the admirable account of education abroad prepared by Mr. A. G. Johnson for the New York *Special Report*, "dates from the day when the government lent its support, and has advanced in the same proportion. The mode of state intervention has been governed by the statute of 1847, amended in 1862. And now every school connected with one of the principal communions obtains a subsidy, on condition that it shall submit to official inspection, and upon giving sufficient guarantees as to the capacity of the teacher and the morals and instruction of the pupils." There are, to be sure, evident marks of progress. Great Britain, for a long time with but two normal schools—it is interesting, by the way, to note that *Blackwood* for last January observes (p. 112) that in America "there are no normal schools for the teaching of teachers,"—has now 47, with nearly 2,300 students in residence, all supported by the state. From 1858 to 1861 the school attendance in England and Wales had increased from 1,750,000 to 2,536,462—the latter being at the rate of one pupil to every eight inhabitants, about equal to the rate in France, and about half that in some of our states. But while the proportion of English ignorance is, so far as statistical returns show, quite as great as the French, England's educational expenditure for her 20,000,000 inhabitants is three times that of France for her 30,000,000.

How dense English popular ignorance is can scarcely be realized by those who regard her infinite superiority in culture and the unapproached munificence of her appliances for higher education and for progress in science, art, and kindred topics. But among the people the state of things is almost that of the Southern mean whites. The marriage registers show that of the persons who are married each year nearly one-third are unable to sign their names—the exact figures, as given in the Registrar-General's returns, being, for England, of men 22 per cent., of women 31; Scot-

land, men 11, women 22; Ireland, men 40, women 52. The recently published inspectors' reports show that the farmers generally are hostile to good schools, fearing the spread of education will be followed by a demand for more wages. In one case it is mentioned that the very managers of the school discouraged the attendance of children after the age of infancy, "for learning only tended to make laborers dissatisfied with their condition, and less civil and obedient to their employers,"—an argument which might derive some color from the ineffable pertness and self-assertion of children of all social grades throughout New England. Still, the reports of the last school-year show that the increased attendance in the schools actually inspected was 1,005. The average attendance, however, is but little over four per cent. of the population, or about four out of every eleven for whom the schools are designed. Beside this, the condition of many of the schools is extremely bad. In many of the better ones the competition for pupils, in order to secure government aid, induces the teachers to relax the discipline in order to conciliate the scholars. As for the worst, to quote from the inspectors' reports mentioned above, they "are carried on by crippled laborers, by smock-frocked rustics just saved from the workhouse, by waifs of misfortune from other walks of life, by superannuated ladies' maids, by old women who can neither hear, nor see, nor write, nor spell, nor cast up simple figures, by slatternly mothers oppressed by poverty and the care of many sons and daughters."

BIRMINGHAM is no doubt regarded as a favored spot by many Americans who know that it sends to Parliament Mr. John Bright—Hon. John Bright, as our newspapers, following the congressional analogy, call him—and who regard that gentleman as the representative of popular enlightenment and liberty, and all the rest of it. As to education, they might expect it to be signally admirable—seeing that endowments dating from Edward VI.'s time yield £12,000 a year for this purpose. But, with the inherent British conservatism which clings so lovingly to anomalies and abuses, the £12,000, like many a similar endowment in many another town, provides instruction for but 600 boys, most of whom are day scholars. Of the educational condition of the place meanwhile some notion is afforded by the lately issued first annual report of the Birmingham Education Society, which declares that its operations are crippled because its annual income, from subscriptions, is only £520. This society worked by committees, who visited certain departments of the town; in one of these departments were found 1,322 children, of whom 31 went to school; in a second, 1,400 children with 240 at school; in a third, 414 children and 4 at school. In all the society visited 45,056 children of fifteen years or under; of these 32,997 had been at school at some time or other, and 12,059 had not; those who could read and write were 13,380, who could read but not write 5,482, who could do neither 26,194—the condition of the girls in each case being worse than that of the boys. The society are not prepared, this report says, to affirm the principle of compulsory education, but their investigations have forced them to conclude that "this class of children can only be brought under instruction by a compulsory law; and that, in the absence of compulsion, they will grow up in ignorance and vice through the apathy resulting, in a great part, from the ignorance of the parents themselves." Something, we think, might have been said concerning the apathy of the government which allows £12,000 to be spent yearly upon 600 boys, while, beside themselves, these 45,000 of its subjects are growing up neglected, probable candidates for its prisons and workhouses or to swell the fathomless tide of ignorance that England pours into America.

OF INDIAN SCHOOLS we get some interesting information—as concerns the government schools, through the report of the Anglo-Indian government on the progress and condition of India for 1866-'67; as to the American missionary schools, from a correspondent of *The Boston Journal*, writing at Allahabad. The English authorities, it would appear, have favored the universities at the expense of more modest institutions. But that the desire for education is increasing, is evinced by the fact that within a short period the students of the English language in the Northwest provinces have increased from 9,757 to 13,355. There are many conservatives who attempt to withstand this desire, but the inducement of obtaining government employment, in the army, the railways, the bar, etc., is too great to be opposed. In Bengal much is looked for from the projected night schools, of which one hundred are to be established experimentally, and five hundred if the event warrants it. In Ajmere and Kumaon widows are being trained as teachers. In Bombay local taxes are being contributed to the school funds. The government has added a new stimulus by aiding the trustees of certain trusts to send annually meritorious students to the University of London and of Edinburgh. The American missionaries—the Rev. Messrs. Walsh and Owen, the latter well-known as a translator of the Bible—are of course without these adventitious aids, yet their success has been very great. "I have about four hundred boys," said Mr. Walsh, while showing his school to the correspondent, "of all ages, shades, and castes. You will see for yourself what they are and what they promise. The only trouble is, I can't graduate a class, for there is such a demand for English-speaking natives that they are snapped up as soon as they can say 'How do you do?' and 'Good morning.'

A great many who have gone out from this school are getting far greater pay than I am." In moral studies the progress of the Hindoos is described as slow and difficult; but they excel in mathematics, and command high salaries as clerks and accountants. Many who have obtained an education in this school are having a salary of \$1,200 per annum. "This," says the writer, "is the stimulus to the native mind, and there is no need now of urging parents to send their boys to the mission schools, which are preferred to those established by the government, notwithstanding the missionaries make the Bible a text-book, and teach the doctrines of the Christian religion as laid down in the catechism of the Westminster divines."

CHINA, as we think we have described before, is really on the way to get thorough university education, after the most approved European models. Fuller accounts of this than we had previously seen have been given in recent issues of *The Pall Mall Gazette* and the *Transactions of the German Oriental Society*. Prince Kung, who for a long time has practically been regent, and other members of the ministry more than a year ago addressed a petition to the Emperor for the foundation of mathematical and astronomical colleges, with European professors. This was favorably received, despite the alarm it occasioned to Chinese conservatism, the representative and embodiment of which, Wo-jen, of the Imperial Council, made strenuous opposition and preferred a counter petition. In this, as quoted by *The Pall Mall* from *The Pekin Gazette*, "it was a mistake," he said, "to suppose that in this big China there were not able men enough. There existed people in large numbers proficient in mathematics, astronomy, and all the other sciences. You need only look for them." Whereupon a prompt decree charged Councillor Wo to look for them. He was, in fact, to form a rival institution, in which his candidates were to vie with those to be educated on the new principles. "And," the document adds, "this undertaking shall not be considered a mere formality." After two days, nevertheless, *The Pekin Gazette* contained a further official communication to this effect: That whereas Wo-jen had been charged with pointing out men of proficiency, of whom he said there existed ample numbers in the empire, and the same had now sent in an immediate report, stating that he had not any special men in his eye, and that he would never dare to propose this one or that one at haphazard—the said Wo shall not for all that be freed from the obligation he has thus undertaken. He shall go on seeking for such individuals, and shall bring them under official notice, in order that they may receive their further education in the institution he will found in friendly rivalry to that of Prince Kung. This episode, we think, is one which M. Offenbach ought by no means to neglect. However, it in no way interfered with the plans of Prince Kung, who at once commenced the erection of suitable buildings, including an astronomical observatory on a large scale and on an entirely European model, while a number of European professors, of more or less eminence, were invited to assume some of the new chairs, and several members of the learned professions have already arrived, two years of preliminary study being allowed them in which to learn the language. The plan of the university, as condensed by *The Pall Mall* from Prince Kung's magniloquent manifesto, is one which, in some points—four and five especially—Europe and America would do remarkably well to imitate:

"1. Only such graduates and employees are to be admitted to academic classes who, by a previous examination, have shown themselves sufficiently advanced to profit by the instruction.

"2. The candidates shall live in the university itself, so that they shall not only have the advantage of being constantly within easy reach of their masters during their private studies, but also in order that they themselves may yield less to the temptation of neglecting their work. For this purpose also their absences shall be strictly noted down.

"3. Every month there shall be an examination on some one special subject, by way of testing the proficiencies of the single students, so that proper distinctions and encouragements may be conferred. These examinations shall take place in the presence of the prince himself.

"4. Every three years there shall be a great general examination. The successful candidates shall be recommended to the throne, and shall at once be suitably employed in the lower grades of the state service. The unsuccessful ones shall continue their studies till the next examination.

"5. The students shall be properly remunerated, in order that they may apply themselves to their work with undivided attention. Apart from the free living, it is proposed to give them ten taels monthly, in order that they might not have to indulge in 'melancholy reflections.' Generosity is above all things the fittest stimulus for those who apply themselves to science and learning.

"6. The progress made by the students is to be properly and liberally acknowledged and rewarded, not merely in token of satisfaction with their labors, but also as an encouragement for those within and without who might not otherwise use all their energies for the purposes of study, since it is in the interest of the state and the common weal to fire the ambition of study in every possible way."

A CORRESPONDENT of *The Pall Mall Gazette*, in alluding to the next OEcumenic Council, writes that the question as to which representatives of the Catholic powers shall be invited to attend it is being anxiously discussed at the Vatican. The Pope had decided to send an invitation to the Tuilleries, but he hesitates about the exclusion of Austria, upon which many of the cardinals and prelates seem to agree with the Jesuits. Another source of embarrassment to Pius IX. is how to invite the "Most Christian" potentate if he is to ignore the "Apostolic?" Poor Victor Emmanuel's case seems to be a foregone conclusion. Nobody dares even suggest his name.

PRUSSIA, the Paris correspondent of *The Publishers' Circular* says, has offered professors' chairs to all the French scientific men menaced with ostracism by the French clergy.

SPANISH AFFAIRS were brought upon the floor of the House of Commons during the last days of the session of the British Parliament. Mr. Bairnes inquired of the government whether it was true that Julian de Vargas, a teacher, had lately been imprisoned like an ordinary felon because a Spanish edition of the Bible and certain Protestant works had been found in his possession; also, whether her Majesty's ministry intended to use their influence with the Madrid cabinet to induce it to abandon a religious persecution revolting to the feelings of all civilized nations, who now extend to Catholics, Protestants, and even Mohammedans, full liberty of conscience? Lord Stanley guardedly replied that it was not yet certain that the accused had been charged with the possession of these books, or with having diffused Protestant doctrine. The books had only been introduced in evidence, and the prosecution itself had been instituted not by the Spanish government, but by the local authorities. In answer to the second question, his lordship stated that whatever her Majesty's ministers might privately think of the affair, they had no right to interfere. The only excuse for diplomatic action would be to recommend to the Spanish government a lenient course in all such cases, as a rigorous policy must give rise to ill-feeling in Protestants countries, and lead to serious national differences. We hardly think that this reply will please Exeter Hall.

MR. GLADSTONE would long have ceased to trouble England with his Church disestablishment bill if the North of Ireland Orangemen could have had their way. He has lately been burnt in effigy at Belfast and Londonderry, amid the execrations and curses of a fanatic anti-Papacy mob. At the latter place, his counterpart had first been oddly dressed up, suspended from a wall, and riddled with bullets. Quiet was only preserved by the presence of a large constabulary and military force. If these demonstrations are any evidence of the spirit in which the next elections will be conducted, the prospects are gloomy indeed.

MR. RONALD THOMSON, secretary of the British legation at Teheran, reports the following facts and statistics from Persia: "The area of the kingdom is 648,000 square miles, but a great part of it is desert. The population averages about seven to the square mile. Tabris contains 110,000, Tehe-

ran 80,000, and Isphahan 60,000 inhabitants. Allowing one million for the cities, 1,700,000 for the Turks, Arabs, and Kurds dispersed through the land, and 1,700,000 for the other inhabitants, the whole population will amount to 4,400,000 souls. In the royal treasury are £1,500,000 in cash, £2,000,000 in crown jewels, £50,000 in gold utensils, etc. The public revenue exceeds the expenditure. Among the latter figures £700,000 for the army and £200,000 for "extraordinary purposes." The nominal strength of the army is 105,000 men, of whom not more than one-third is active; the remainder compose the reserve, which, though mostly without arms and engaged in agriculture, can yet be made immediately available. The weapons of the troops are old-fashioned French muskets, originally bought at 25 francs apiece at Paris, English muskets purchased 20 years ago, and a few thousand stand manufactured at Teheran. The officers seem to be ignorant. The imports are estimated at £2,500,000 and the exports at £1,500,000. Silk is the most valuable export of the country.

MR. PAKENHAM, another secretary of legation, has sent home from Rio Janeiro a report on the finances and population of Brazil, whence it appears that the public expenditure of that empire for the year 1868-9 is £6,774,269 (which includes £1,441,510 for the Paraguayan war). The revenue is estimated at £5,900,000. The population numbers 10,058,000, among whom are 200,000 Indians and 1,674,000 slaves. The public debt is £47,595,318. The exports from Rio Janeiro, principally coffee, sugar, rum, cotton, and hides, amount in value to £9,558,287, in addition to which Pernambuco, Pará, Bahia, Santos, and Rio Grande do Sul export £7,000,000 more, which gives a total export of £16,558,287.

AMONG the evidences of the intense heat at London the correspondent of the *Kölner Zeitung* relates the fact that a venerable English judge actually took off his wig at the assizes, and advised the gentlemen of the long robe to "go and do likewise." Such a breach of legal etiquette needs to have "confirmation strong as proofs of Holy Writ," for there is nothing more sacred to the British Themis than the horse-hair of her votaries.

LORD BROUGHAM, it seems, is after all destined to pay the usual penalty of British greatness by figuring in effigy

among England's departed worthies in Westminster Abbey. In answer to some question put to Disraeli on this subject by a member of the House of Commons, the Premier declared that her Majesty's government had for some time been considering this means of immortalizing his lordship, but the delay was entirely owing to the "lamentable decline of sculpture" in the land! Very lamentable this decadence is, indeed!

THE BRITISH PREMIERSHIP appears to be a capital advertisement. *John Bull* says that over 100,000 copies of Disraeli's novels, which threatened to remain on the shelves of the booksellers, have been sold since his accession to the head of the cabinet.

SPEAKING of Disraeli reminds us that he has secured to the widow of Lover, the late Irish novelist, a continuance of the £100 pension which her husband received in his lifetime from the government. Whatever Disraeli's other shortcomings may be, he is ever ready to reward literary merit.

RISTORI, so continental journals state, netted, during her American trip, no less than 3,700,000 francs. During her visit here she appeared 120 times in New York and 360 times in other places. About one-third of this sum, says rumor, has been spent in the purchase of a splendid estate, called "Villa Ristori."

DR. DUMICHEN, famous as an Egyptologist and archaeologist, has gone to Cairo to meet the returning party of Prussian savans who went to Arabia and India to observe the solar eclipse of last month. Their stay in Egypt is for the purpose of examining and photographing various glyptic inscriptions.

M. JOSEPH DERENBOURG—whom M. Ernest Renan describes, in the course of a long eulogium, as "one of our most meritorious Oriental scholars," adding that, although he "is not so versed in the knowledge of primitive Christian monuments as in those of the *Talmud* and *Mishnah*, he probably knows them better than any other learned Israelite"—has published through the Imperial printing-office a very profound *Essai sur l'Histoire de la Palestine depuis Cyrus jusqu'à Adrien, d'après les Thalmuds et les autres sources rabbiniques*.

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